The Nation.

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The Week.

The unparalleled catastrophe last week at San Francisco, happily little remarkable for loss of life (though this must remain indeterminable) under the combined action of earthquake and flame, effaced in an instant the sensation caused by the destructiveness of Vesuvius. In an instant, too, it evoked the best qualities of the inhabitants for self-help, and the human sympathies of the whole American people. The worst is not so bad as appeared at the height of the excitement; the compensations, in the certain superior reconstruction and reordering of the city, are very great. Perhaps the most irreparable losses are in the collections of books and works of art—that of Alfred Sutro, in particular; we hear nothing of the Hubert Bancroft historical collection. The gravest physical and social problem is the disposition of the Chinese, whose quarter was the city's dishonor as a modern municipality, and the very foundation of local persecution and national bad faith toward that unfortunate people. Valuable lessons have been learned in respect of stable building, though not to the extent of assurance that a similar visitation could not reproduce the conflagration which lent equal horror and ruin to the scene.

The earthquake will excite a certain prejudice against San Francisco, and indeed against the northern part of California, as a place for either residence or investment. Moreover, while San Francisco is prostrated, rival ports, north and south, will secure at least a temporary advantage. These obstacles are not insuperable. The climate of California, the abundance of its fruits and vegetables, the excellence of its public schools, from the kindergarten to the State University, are irresistible attractions both to native Americans and to immigrants. Plenty of sane people will continue to regard California, with earthquakes, as better than any other place *without*. The schools and colleges may pass through a brief period of depression. The State University at Berkeley, supported in part by a tax, will feel for a few years the effect of such a vast blotting out of taxable property; but the check cannot be permanent. The development of the University must keep pace with the development of California. Leland Stanford has lost some of its buildings; but Stanford, with an income from $30,000,000, can soon restore its library, laboratories, museums, and dormitories. In fine, when the public institutions and all the other facilities for a civilized and happy life are reëstablished, and when the memory of this catastrophe has grown a little dim, San Francisco and the region about will not lack for inhabitants. Nor will San Francisco be hard put to it for capital. She has never leaned on the East as hard as Seattle, Los Angeles, and some of the cities of the Mississippi Valley. She has made her own money, and has been uncommonly independent. San Franciscans will unlock their own heaped-up treasure vaults when they want means for their enterprises.

Suspension of the tariff on structural steel and other materials needed for rebuilding the California cities is the latest measure of relief proposed in Congress. This plan, we are assured, should not disturb the most fanatical of the standpatters. But we are unable to follow that line of reasoning. If steel and lumber are to come in duty free for suffering San Franciscans, why not for Philadelphians or Bostonians who have been burned out? Are we not all equally good Americans? Do Senator Cullom and Representative Madden want to see the lumber market of San Francisco glutted with the pauper products of the British Columbia forests? Do the hearts of these statesmen no longer beat for the redwood of California and the fir and the cedar of Oregon and Washington? Ballard, close to Seattle, boasts that it makes more shingles than any other place in the world. Yet this feeble infant industry is to be strangled merely because California is in hard luck. Senators Lodge and Aldrich must see that the huge sawmills of Puget Sound are as sacred a vested interest as the Massachusetts and Rhode Island factories for cheap jewelry. Pennsylvania must rise to the defence of the steel works of Pittsburgh. The Colorado Fuel and Iron Company must cry aloud for the aid of its friends in the United States Senate.

Mr. Cullom has forgotten that a cheap coat makes a cheap man, and that a cheap house is therefore a curse to the country. It is equally obvious that expensive building material means high rents, and high rents are the prime cause of our physical and moral well-being. San Francisco and the cities of the Pacific Coast have always enjoyed an automatic protective tariff. The mere cost of transporting heavy manufactured goods across the continental divide has tended to raise prices. Speaker Cannon will explain that the resultant additional cost of living—not fertility of soil and productiveness of mines—is the real basis of California's prosperity. Clearly, then, the logical thing for the standpatters in this emergency is to apply their principles relentlessly. The Dingley tariff is a good thing, and there cannot be too much of it. Then let us show our sympathy for California, not by abolishing the Dingley duties, but by doubling them on all building material intended for the stricken city. The proposition can be supported by every argument now urged in favor of a protective tariff.

The President's special message to Congress, urging insurance legislation for the District of Columbia, marks Mr. Roosevelt's retreat from his position of last December. He then contended that "Congress has already recognized that interstate insurance may be a proper subject for Federal legislation," and he accordingly, though with much vagueness, urged that Federal control be established. A month ago this position was rendered quite untenable by the report of the House Judiciary Committee, which unanimously pronounced the argument for Federal interference with State police powers, on such a basis, "a monstrous doctrine, subversive of our dual system of government," and proved its point conclusively. What the President now recommends is merely the establishment of an insurance bureau in the Department of Labor, such bureau to supervise, on lines laid down by Congress, insurance companies hereafter doing business in the District of Columbia. The particular bill approved by Mr. Roosevelt is one drawn up by the committee named by the National Life Underwriters' Association last February; it provides, among other things, for larger facility in the use of proxies, and for the liability of directors for illegal investments. We certainly see no reason why Congress, which legislates for the District, should not make the same endeavor to improve its insurance laws as our Legislature is making for New York. As for the idea, however, that Congress should instantly set out with the idea of framing a "model insurance law" for all the States to copy, it strikes us that Congressmen, like other people, will know better what such a law should be when the new Armstrong laws have been tested in operation. This, we imagine, is the view which Congress itself will take of the proposed new legislation.

The latest argument for free alcohol, that it will render the automobile odorless, so strengthens the already strong case for the act that a Senate owing its existence to popular election could hard-

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ly kill the bill passed by the House a fortnight ago. We will not ignore, however, the elaborate and careful but unavailing argument made by Mr. Young of Michigan on the day of the bill's passage. "I should be false to my duty," he said, "did I not at least protest against the passage of a measure which I believe will not only disappoint the hopes of those who favor it, but will seriously cripple, if not destroy, the wood-alcohol business and its allied industries, which, in my district alone, support not less than 15,000 people and employ nearly $20,000,000 of capital." Inferior forest lands are made valuable, he explained, because, in addition to the scattered clear timber, all the unfit and waste material can be made into charcoal, acetate of lime, and wood alcohol. "Each branch of this industry," Mr. Young explained, "is necessary to the success of the whole." He declares "chimerical" the notion that it is possible to "curb the Standard Oil Company" by distilling "potato peelings and corn-stalks," and contends that the Government should not "abolish taxes already in existence and which are needed for the support of the Government and the building of needed public improvements, for the sole and only purpose of destroying an existing industry in order that another . . . may be built upon its ruins."

This, of course, is merely the "vested interests" argument of the tariff beneficiaries applied to the internal-revenue schedules. The facts are hardly disputed. It costs very much less to make grain alcohol than wood alcohol. It is also better for most purposes than wood alcohol. Wood alcohol is used as an inferior substitute for the grain alcohol, which a tax of some $2 a gallon has made prohibitively expensive. It is, at least in its present proportions, the most artificially created of industries. And what has the compulsory substitution of wood for grain alcohol cost the consumers? According to Mr. Young's own figures, untaxed grain alcohol would sell at 38 to 40 cents a gallon, as against 50 cents for wood alcohol. As 8,000,000 gallons of the latter are used annually, this makes nearly or quite $960,000 a year taken from users of alcohol. According to the Ways and Means Committee's figures, which give 9.4 cents as the minimum cost of producing grain alcohol per gallon and 40 cents for wood, the corresponding saving would be $2,448,000 per year. That, be it remembered, is for the quantity now used. With the predicted enormous increase in the use of alcohol, the saving will be correspondingly greater. Is Michigan's wood-alcohol industry so deserving as to warrant this tribute? Answer may be deferred, as the Senate Finance Committee—Aldrich, chairman—is preparing to "investigate" the free-alcohol question so thoroughly that the House bill will certainly not be enacted until next year's session.

Politics in Mississippi seems to be a kind of family affair, as John Sharp Williams and Gov. Vardaman are discovering with regret. No cries of nepotism were raised when seven members of the family of Senator McLaurin were holding office at one time, but now that Senator Money stubbornly refuses to say whether or not he will be a candidate for reëlection, the two aspirants for his place find themselves in an annoying situation. Hernando De Soto Money is sixty-seven years old, and in bad health; and though his term does not expire until 1911, under the system of quadrennial Legislatures in Mississippi (as in Alabama), United States Senators are sometimes elected four years before they take their seats. Open competition this year between Williams and Vardaman would naturally seem reasonable, but just here is where the "family problem" confronts them. Gov. Vardaman is a first cousin of Senator Money, and Representative Williams is a first cousin of Mrs. Money. Kinship means much in the South, and an attempt to force this peculiar issue would bring the house of Money crashing down about the ears of the younger men. Dread of such a calamity may even induce Senator Money to sacrifice his health to his cousins, and go back to Washington himself.

"Lynching is a pastime, not an industry, of the Southwest," explained B. B. Paddock of Fort Worth, Texas, at the first annual convention in St. Louis of the commercial clubs and newspaper editors of that region, which has just closed. But as a pastime it is taken too seriously. On Monday, at the first session of the convention, a resolution was introduced endorsing Gov. Folk's denunciation of the Springfield lynchers. After it was read, Mr. Paddock, who has been mayor of Fort Worth and was a Texas Commissioner to the Louisiana Purchase Exposition two years ago, rose to say: "Mr. Chairman, I move to table that resolution. The people of Springfield did exactly right. They ought to do more of it." This motion was carried with hardly a dissenting voice, and the best excuse that any delegate could give for supporting it was that the introduction of the resolution was "a political move," or that the Springfield lynching was "a purely local question." Such earnestness on Mr. Paddock's part in preserving his favorite pastime from criticism would almost indicate that it was really a great industry like cattle-raising or rice-growing. The Governors of Missouri, Arkansas, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona were guests of the St. Louis convention. It would be interesting to know to what extent they endorse the humane Texan's view of the significance of lynching.

Though an Ohio judge has decided that the legislative committee which has been looking into affairs under Boss Cox's rule in Cincinnati is without proper authority, the damage has already been done. The crude "graft" machine that was built up under Cox has been exposed in enough of its parts to show clearly the need for destroying it utterly. Since February 23, the day of the committee's first session, it has been shown that the treasurers of Hamilton County have deposited money collected as taxes in Cox's banks, and drawn interest in the form of gratuities." These the treasurers pocketed or divided. Already over $200,000 has been returned to the county treasury by three men who have held the office: "Rud." Hynicka has refunded over $58,000, John H. Gibson over $97,000, and Tilden R. French more than $50,000. A Cox grand jury has refused to indict these men, on the ground that they have been willing to return the money, and on the further ground that they "may not have been exclusive beneficiaries." As a matter of fact, they were not "exclusive beneficiaries." Hynicka swore that he received only $25,000 of the $58,000 which he turned back; and the same thing was true of Gibson and French. It has been brought out that the local courts have been ruled by Cox, and that both city and county governments have been shaped by him with the one object of yielding every possible bit of "graft." For an "illegal" body, working in the face of opposition from such high sources as Senators Foraker and Dick, the Drake committee has secured surprisingly valuable data.

Gov. Higgins did a day's mixed work on Thursday last. He spoke out promptly and sharply on the bedevilment of the insurance bill, and his attitude, combined with the volleyed protests from the press and public all over the State, led the Senate to agree to retrace its steps and strike out the vicious White amendment adopted the day before. This makes it certain that the insurance bills will all become law substantially as urged by the Armstrong Committee. Policyholders throughout the State will praise the Governor for his intervention to frustrate the malicious and futile schemers of the Senate. As to Mr. Higgins's action in vetoing the recording-tax on mortgages, opinions will differ. Republicans in this city will say that it enormously increases their difficulty in electing members of the Legislature. Up in the country, where the old superstitions about mortgage taxation die hard,

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many will think that Gov. Higgins did just right. The injustice of taxing mortgages, with the privilege of using money corruptly in elections, must and shall be preserved for the blameless rural voter. Undoubtedly, the Governor succeeded in pointing out some technical flaws in the vetoed bill. Whether he would sign it with these removed, he does not make clear, but we are inclined to think he would. At all events, the Legislature should make the trial. There is time enough, and there are votes enough, to pass the bill with amendments to meet the Governor's objections. It should be done without fail.

Mr. Jerome must now see how well-advised he was in abandoning his famous brief, contending that the secret taking of insurance funds for politicians could not be larceny. He threw that away when he argued the Perkins case before Jurge Greenbaum, and maintained that larceny had, in fact, been committed by Mr. Perkins. The judge's decision on April 18 sustains this view. That is to say, Judge Greenbaum agrees with Judge O'Sullivan that the facts as described come under the definition of larceny in the Penal Code, and that the question of "intent" is to be left for the jury to decide, after hearing all the evidence. We do not know whether Mr. Jerome's friends will hail this decision as a great triumph for him. It is, at any rate, a vindication of his later opinion as against his earlier, and should lead to prompt action. Now that the District Attorney has got the decision of two judges, he can have no objection to allowing the grand jury to indict Perkins and the other "conveyors" of insurance money.

Anything to oblige, is apparently Campbell-Bannerman's standing order with regard to the Laborites. Mr. Keir Hardie announced on April 17 that the Premier had not only accepted an amendment to the Labor Disputes bill exempting the treasuries of trade unions from damage suits, but also had taken the bill from the Attorney-General and committed it to the Solicitor-General. In self-respect the Attorney-General could not continue to advocate the measure, having expressed himself unequivocally against statutory immunity for union funds. As a matter of fact, Campbell-Bannerman's surrender shows a turn-over from the old, common-sense Liberal ideal to sheer sentimentalism. The only reason for giving to trade-union funds an immunity enjoyed by the treasuries of no other association whatsoever is that the trade-unionists are poor and unequal to any financial contest with employers. The same reasoning would justify a police magistrate in declining to impose the drunk-and-disorderly fine upon any person not in comfortable circumstances. Campbell-Bannerman, in his first Parliamentary comment on the Labor Disputes bill, practically took this genial view of the situation. He desired to give the unions a lift because it hurt them more to pay than it hurt the employer to lose his property. Mr. Bernard Partridge shows in *Punch* the laboring-man offering to blind justice, instead of the scales which hang even for labor and capital, a balance in which "Trades Unions" dips appreciably. "This pair works better—for me," is the argument for substitution.

The approaching general election in France will turn very largely on religious and social questions. All competent publicists agree that tax and budgetary reform are really more pressing, but these matters were ever dull to the voters whom they most concern. The attitude of the State towards the Church, the right of Government officials to organize and strike, the practicability of old-age pensions—these are the issues that will be argued up and down the arrondissements. Unquestionably, the Socialists will stand for the right of officials to strike; the case is urgent, for many of the post-office employees have actually struck work. Similarly, the Socialists will demand a drastic enforcement of the Separation act. They will ask that Government supervision of the parishes be minute and rigid; they will, presumably, protest if the Pope freely exercises the right of appointing bishops without consulting the Government—a right which, for the first time in a century, he regains through the abrogation of the Concordat. The elections, then, will show whether the old anti-clerical sentiment remains in full force, or whether calm reflection on the implications of the Separation act and the spectacle of army officers refusing to batter down church doors, of communities in arms against the taking of church inventories, have brought about a more humane and less doctrinaire feeling.

M. Ribot, the veteran Republican, whose defection had much to do with the fall of the Rouvier Cabinet, has reviewed the entire political situation in a notable address at Roubaix. He combated the Separation bill, not as wrong in principle, but as untimely and oppressive. France is not ready, he held, to give a free rein to a Church whose feelings have been sorely outraged. He pointed out the absurdity of breaking off diplomatic relations with the Vatican when Protestant Powers find it necessary to maintain representatives at the Holy See. In pushing devout Catholics to the verge of insurrection, he insisted, a wrong had been done both to the State and to the Church. To the project for old-age pensions he objected vigorously, because no general law could be sufficiently flexible to meet the varying needs of the different occupations. Moreover, this great extra expense is to be incurred at a time when economy and tax adjustment are the crying needs. Instead of old-age pensions, he advocated encouragement of voluntary insurance, and land companies which should put the young laborer in possession either of his home or of a small farm. Finally, he condemned the use of the public service for party ends, and pleaded for a reduction of Government interference in private affairs. The address was a fine argument for genuine Republicanism, and one may well hope that such teaching will not fall unheeded. The elections will show whether the mind of France is still set principally on harrying the Church and paying Socialist doles without counting the cost, or whether leaders of Ribot's type have taught the electorate to do a certain amount of sound and comprehensive thinking concerning the republic.

Announcement that the Russian Government has now formally arranged for a $440,000,000 public loan is interesting for many reasons. This is the first "long-term loan," in the sense usually applied to public borrowings, which Russia has been able to place since the Eastern war broke out. During the first year of war she secured several loans at Paris and Berlin, running six to a dozen years; but the revolutionary outbreak of January, 1905, ended even these. Since then, Russia has been able only to borrow on Treasury notes with a year or less to run. Last October a 4 per cent. loan of $250,000,000, on the older long-term basis, had almost been arranged for when revolution broke out again. The Government now reappears in the money market with a request for nearly double that amount, and European critics seem to agree that the need for this money is imperative. Naturally, after what happened last winter, and with so largely increased a demand, terms imposed by the lenders are harsh. In October they fixed a rate of interest and a price which would have made the investment yield of the new bonds something like 4½ per cent. The loan now proposed will net the bankers more than 5½—this being the lowest rating of credit applied to any first-rate government, outside of war-time, in a generation. Paris once more bears the burden, taking half the loan. A more interesting fact is that, while Berlin takes none directly, London is expected to subscribe for $68,000,000—this in spite of the reported provision of the contract that no market shall "unload" on the Stock Exchange of another market until two years shall have elapsed. This is the "protective clause" insisted on for the benefit of Paris last October.

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ATTACKING THE JUDICIARY.

Has not the President somewhat abused the immemorial privilege of a defeated litigant to "go down to the tavern and curse the court"? A private explosion of pettishness is one thing; but for the President to unbosom himself as he did on April 18 in a formal message to Congress betrays a growing and unhappy irritability on his part, along with a disregard of the proprieties. It is true that the decision of Judge Humphrey brought Mr. Roosevelt's pet plan of controlling the Trusts by means of the Bureau of Corporations tumbling about his ears in a heap of illegality; but that furnishes no excuse for his extravagant language about a "gross miscarriage of justice," and his assertion that the decision of the court had made a "farce" of an act of Congress. If the Administration's whole scheme of prosecuting the packers was blunderingly conceived, as the court held, the thing to do is to learn wisdom of the sorrowful experience and go about the job in the right way next time.

The President's hard words about Judge Humphrey will break no bones, but they do break precedent and official decency. Such railing by the Executive at a coördinate and independent branch of the Government is not only unbecoming, but mischievous. It tends to destroy that confidence in the judiciary which is of the essence of our law-abiding spirit and our civil stability. Who is this judge whom Mr. Roosevelt berates? A man of fifty-six, twenty-six years a lawyer, for four years a United States District Attorney, and since 1901 a Federal district judge. The presumption is that he knows the law at least as well as the layman in the White House who undertakes to set him right. His opinion, moreover, which has inspired such celestial rage, not only was based on precedent and authority, but pointed out precisely the blunders the Administration had made in the prosecution, and showed how it might have proceeded successfully under other statutes. It is unpleasant, of course, for the President to see his cherished handiwork knocked into a ruin, but his tilting at the courts is a very ill-considered way of revealing his pique.

With Mr. Roosevelt, we have long since passed the point of asking, "Suppose Bryan had done such a thing!" Still, people have not wholly forgotten the campaign of 1896, and the use that was then made of Mr. Bryan's language derogatory to the judiciary. "Preserve the courts from meddling by the Executive," was then the Republican cry. So in 1898 the independence and immunity of an upright judge was the frequent theme of Mr. Roosevelt's campaign speeches; and it was the issue over Judge Daly which Croker stupidly raised that did more than any other one thing to elect Roosevelt Governor of New York. Hence it is a complete and unwelcome change to find him assuming the angry and hectoring attitude of his late message. "I can hardly believe that the ruling of Judge Humphrey will be followed by other judges." Why did the President say that? Was it to give his valuable opinion on a point of law? Or is there a threat lurking in the words? One has merely to recall the fact that Federal judges are dependent upon the President for promotion, in case of vacancies occurring, to see how broad is the hint given them that they had better agree with the President if they wish to find favor. We do not assert that such was the intended meaning of Mr. Roosevelt's language; but it is at least a possible inference. It would certainly have been drawn from a similar loose utterance by Mr. Bryan.

This question of the proper attitude towards the courts enters deeply into the pending railway-rate legislation. It is not merely a dispute whether the provision for judicial review should be broad or restricted. Behind all that, lies the ill-concealed feeling of some that a judge—though he has given his days and nights to the study of jurisprudence, is removed by his position from political ambitions, and is called upon constantly to give his deliberate and conscientious opinion about the interpretation and application of the law—is no more likely to be right than the man in the street. "They are but nine," said Senator Bailey, referring to the Supreme Court; "we are ninety," meaning the Senate. Mr. Bailey is a lawyer and a respecter of courts, so that he was presently led to explain that he did not intend, by the words which he used in the heat of debate, to cast any aspersion upon the judiciary. But others are not so careful. There is a notion abroad that it would be just as well to put things to a vote hastily, and make the pottering judges keep their hands off. To such a deplorable tendency the President's unguarded language will give encouragement. If he gets his Rate bill through as he wants it, and if then the courts were to reverse a decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission, on the ground that it took property without just compensation, he would be quite capable of another outburst like that he indulged in against Judge Humphrey. "Why, this," he would exclaim, "is not at all what I intended, and the courts have made a farce of the intention of Congress." It is obvious that, on such terms, the independence and inviolability of the judiciary would soon be broken down, and that the framework of our Government would be altered out of all recognition. The authors of the Constitution surely never contemplated such a lecturing of the judges by the President; but then, it is probable that Hamilton and Madison would say that they never foresaw Roosevelt at all.

REACHING FOR INDIAN LANDS.

For a charming illustration of specious pleading, we commend the resolutions just adopted by the St. Louis convention of Southwestern editors and merchants regarding the Curtis bill, which provides for the final disposition of the affairs of Indian Territory. They recite the fact that Congress means to deny to the Indians the right to alienate their allotments of land for twenty-five years, and then assert that such a restriction will fall in with "the desires of the so-called grafters." These sharpers are pictured as speculators, who design to buy up the lands of the Indians piecemeal, by private agreements. They are, by their schemes, to retard "the industrial development of that section of the Union and the entire Southwest." What the St. Louis convention preferred would be to have the restrictions removed entirely as regards all "surplus" land—that is, all land beyond a homestead of forty acres. Just why they conclude that, in case the restrictions on the sale of land were removed, the speculator would be barred from the Territory, they do not explain. To one on the outside it would seem that the ability to secure a clear title might very materially assist the speculator; certainly, the Indians have less actual knowledge of the value of their holdings than they will have in twenty-five years.

As for the Territory's opportunity to develop industrially under the restrictions imposed by the Curtis bill, the optimistic have no reason to lose hope. We are unable to picture the Indian Territory as a wilderness, where, in the words of a vigorous opponent of restriction, "the coyote and the lobo wolf may range at will," but where "the man with the hoe may not raise a stalk of corn or cotton." The law goes quite as far as it should in liberalizing the provisions for leasing, and in ten years, if there is an unused acre of fertile land in Indian Territory, it will not remain idle because "the dead hand of Congress" has descended upon the land. The rabid objectors to the conservatism of Congress are in despair because all coal and asphalt lands in the Territory have been reserved from sale until the existing leases, some of which have twenty-five years yet to run, have expired. Here again the aggressive "friends of the Indian" argue that it is better to buy outright than to lease and wait for development operations. But the Senate was of different mind. It wisely insisted that the matter be delayed until the present craze for speculation in Indian property has passed.

Pressure at Washington to have the Indian taken into the new State on an

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equal footing, so far as his tenure of land is concerned, has come mainly from Oklahoma, of course. Both Gov. Frantz and Bird S. McGuire, Delegate in Congress from that Territory, have spoken vigorously for the removal of restrictions. The Governor, who is a favorite at the White House, largely because of his enthusiasm, recently pictured the thriving new State that would shed glory on the flag—if only the people of Indian Territory insisted upon getting the restrictions removed. "The citizen of this new State shall feel no longer the humiliation of swaddling bands." Delegate McGuire, also, has expressed the prevailing Oklahoma opinion. In a speech in the House in February, he referred to the theory that the only way to civilize an Indian is to set him down between two white neighbors. But even Congress was able to see the humor of that statement as applied to Indian Territory, where only by stretching the meaning of the term can one Indian in eight be called a full-blood. The problem, therefore, is not to "civilize" the natives of Indian Territory; it is simply to insure that the tribal lands shall be held for the use and occupation of the members of the tribes. Whoever seeks to set up the plea of industrial stagnation to secure the removal of restrictions, not only is using a specious argument, but is branding himself as an ally of the exploiters of the Indians.

It was fortunate for the tribes that Senator La Follette decided to go to Washington. In the bill as originally introduced, the promoters of the country's industrial future had provided that the valuable coal and asphalt deposits in the Indian Territory should be sold to the highest bidder, and the proceeds divided among the tribes that owned the land. This was the situation: More than 300,000 acres of such land was reserved, but less than 100,000 acres had been developed, and only a small fraction of that 100,000 had been thoroughly investigated. Until Senator La Follette arose to point out the trail of the railroad serpent from St. Louis to South McAlester, it might have been supposed that the Indians were about to drive a shrewd bargain. La Follette may not have known that the railroad interests were combining to acquire, through subsidiary companies, the rich Choctaw and Chickasaw coal fields, but he soon put Senator Clapp and the sponsors of the bill on the defensive, and the provision for sale was stricken out. But even in the amended bill as passed, after specifying that sales shall not take place until existing leases expire, occurs the clause, "or until such time as may be otherwise provided by law." Though the law now stands as a triumph of those who have the future of Indian Territory at heart, the prophets of the great commercial future have not been silenced. The above clause holds out a hope to them that another Congress may heed their land hunger and their desire to open up coal mines and asphalt deposits. The hand of the land speculator is always reaching out toward the Indian holdings. Now, as always, the sympathy of the country is invoked because for the time the invaders cannot acquire title to the land and enjoy the inestimable privilege of robbing the natives under cover of the law. "American citizens deprived of the blessed right of equality" is the way the plunderers describe themselves. But Congress should remember that there is a briefer and more accurate title for them. In Alaska, they would be called "the spoilers."

AN ADEQUATE ARMY MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

It is an old contention that the Government is morally bound to see that the soldier, who yields to it so much of his personal liberty, does not suffer unnecessarily by reason thereof. In every great war carried on by the United States this ideal has not been attained, but the very opposite has happened. Civilians, once enlisted, when clad in uniform and entrusted with firearms, have been called soldiers. As such they become subjected to unaccustomed conditions of food, shelter, and exposure, with the inevitable physical results. Similar consequences follow when the National Guard, already trained in the manual of arms and the simpler drill, goes into the field. In the very nature of the case, the newly commissioned officers of the line are not qualified to protect the rank and file from the dangers to health, because the conditions of the field, of cantonments and camps are essentially different from those of the home and the armory. The company officers have immediate oversight of the men; the regimental and general officers regulate in a wider way their vital conditions. In practice there has been no corps actually set apart to ward off disease. For a very long time the medical officers (formerly not officers, but attached civilians), who are popularly held guardians of the health of the men, were charged simply with treating those who suffered from disease, not with pointing out or neutralizing the conditions that create it.

The duty of the medical staff was supposed to begin after the man was taken on the sick list. It was a formal application to military life of the unconscious fatalism of civil life. One becomes ill, he "catches" a complaint. It is a visitation of Providence, for which the victim is no more responsible than were those upon whom fell the tower of Siloam for that catastrophe. After the illness begins, the family physician is called, or the patient goes to hospital. Formerly never, now occasionally, there is intelligent effort to prevent the spread, still more rarely to inhibit the cause of the disability. Until recently these phases of military and civil life were identical, and the misnomer "surgeon," which clings as a term of limitation, has descended from the era when the care of wounds was the only occasion for any medical attention. By very slow degrees, for military conservatism and the natural jealousy of command blocked the way, the medical officer's functions have enlarged, until suddenly in these latter days the public turns fiercely upon the Medical Department when it sees the sick-rate rising and the death-roll growing among those who offered their lives to overcome the enemy, but who are themselves overcome before they are in touch with the foe.

When Gen. Scott in Mexico lost one-third of his effectives in camp, it was accepted as inevitable. When Gen. Shafter's army staggered in the lines after the fighting at Santiago had ceased, and Camps Alger and Thomas became synonyms for fever beds, the country was outraged. Japan in a prolonged foreign campaign lowered morbidity and its consecutive mortality far below that from wounds, and thus set a standard to fall below which would be disgraceful. But such success depends upon technical qualifications and upon administrative ability and authority. There are no more inspired sanitarians than there are inspired gunners. A fleet manned by shipwrights alone will be lost no more surely than the health of an army trusted to clinicians will fast fall to pieces. Both are competent to repair damages, but neither can avoid peril. The "surgeon" does not prevent wounds; he treats them. What is wanted, besides the accomplished medical staff which the standing army possesses, is also a body of highly trained men, capable of generalizing from effects to causes, so placed in relation to control that their opinions will be both respected and acted upon.

Any one familiar with military affairs knows that official special opinion carries weight in proportion to the spokesman's rank. For as rank is taken to be an exponent of ability, opinion, unless disproved by the result, is respected in the same ratio. As a professor to a tutor, a bishop to a curate, a leader at the bar to the struggling counsel, so is a field officer, and especially one of high position, to an officer of lower grade. This question of rank is one of the most difficult for the civilian mind to appreciate, yet upon it rests the efficient workings of the whole military system. For while rank has privileges, it also has responsibilities; and, speaking generally, the bearers of high rank feel the responsibility and discharge the duty. Precisely what the Medical Department of the army now lacks is an adequate number of officers of the higher field

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rank, who may be depended upon to discharge their administrative duties with credit to themselves and advantage to the service. A bill with a clause to this effect has passed the Senate and has been reported by the Military Committee of the House, but it depends upon the will of the Speaker whether it can come to a vote. After the careful and generally hostile scrutiny that such bills meet with, it would be both autocratic and damaging for the Speaker to substitute his own views and to exercise a virtual veto upon legislation which has been commended by legislators and executive alike. Public opinion should insist that the Medical Department be given the opportunity it begs, which Congress seems willing to concede if Speaker Cannon would but let it.

A CYCLE OF ART IN NEW YORK.

The death of Daniel Huntington, former president of the National Academy of Design, happened, by a curious coincidence, within twenty-four hours of the Astor House ball which revived the older New York in which he had won his fame. His death removes, we believe, the last of those painters who had made their name before the fifties. Within a few years Asher B. Durand, F. E. Church, Eastman Johnson, Albert Bierstadt, and their younger contemporary, Edward Moran, have gone. A few more years must see the last of painters to whom the founding of the National Academy and the presidency of the artist-inventor, Morse, 1826-1842, are even schoolboy memories. Already the pioneers begin to assume a legendary penumbra; they one and all give the impression of stalwart and somewhat salient personalities that never quite painted themselves out. In the case of the late Daniel Huntington, a long career of public usefulness in various artistic interests of solid esteem among the makers of modern New York outlasted the early vogue of his ideal and genre painting, and the period during the sixties when he was almost the official portrait painter of America. To him and a number of his contemporaries applies the ejaculation of a French critic upon the men of the thirties: "They were tremendous fellows."

The worthy Tuckerman, who fifty years ago was the accredited oracle of taste in America, was certainly of this opinion. He naturally overpraised the paintings of his associates; probably he did not overpraise their personalities. In any case, it is evident that men like Huntington and Eastman Johnson came up in an atmosphere of appreciation such as later painters of greater abilities have seldom enjoyed. Compare, for example, the relative obscurity of Wyant, the tardy acclaim of Inness, the bitter struggle of Homer Martin, with the popularity that so readily fell to the earliest academicians. It is certain that New York, in the thirties and forties, was in a definitely expectant and, one may say, patriotic attitude towards its artists, whereas to-day its attitude is become highly skeptical, or, worse, merely indifferent. New York, in its mellower fashion, was then experiencing a phase of that transcendental movement which quite intoxicated New England. The literature of the times, or at least the illustrated annuals, abounded in unfavorable comparison of European with American scenery. Our landscape became a cult; Washington Irving and James Fenimore Cooper even provided it with local legends. There was a more or less conscious and resolute desire to live up to Emerson's formula and make our land "classic to ourselves." To this sentiment the romantic landscapes of Cole and the grandiose panoramas of Church contributed notably.

Huntington represented historical or religious painting—the veritable tradition of Allston and Morse—the kind that Sir Joshua Reynolds had declared to be the highest and the unfortunate Haydon had exalted into a religion. Huntington was admirably fitted by temperament for this lofty vocation. There is in his religious paintings, particularly in his several subjects from 'Pilgrim's Progress,' a purity of sentiment, a certain mystical distinction, that places them fairly on a par with the works of William Dyce or Ary Scheffer. But the time was unpropitious for the sublime in painting. For New York of the antebellum time the sublime was too often bounded by "Childe Harold" on the north and the Oriental romances of Tom Moore on the south; with perhaps the Rocky Mountains and Düsseldorf as longitudinal limits. There was in America no established repertory of noble forms upon which a painter might draw; the training received at home or at Düsseldorf or Rome was defective and even positively bad. The product, however, with all its limitations, was precisely that which New York required. There is a most interesting chapter to write some day on the position of the artist in old New York. Much may be inferred on the subject from Tuckerman's enthusiastic pages; Mr. Samuel Isham gives an excellent hint of the matter in his recent 'History of American Painting.'

The relations existing at that time between painters and society bespeak a greater leisure and capacity for comradeship on the part of the wealthy than is common to-day. The artist was much sought out as such. His pictures were bought, uncritically to be sure, but because the buyer honestly liked them. To-day one sees occasionally an old house garnished with Kensetts, Cropseys, and the like, and feels that here is something authentic. Some past proprietor has desired just this record of vacations by mountain or shore—has loved to live with these pictures, just as he enjoyed alluring their painters to his hospitable mahogany. Moreover, there appears to have been a constant association between artist and man of affairs that made it very easy to carry through any project for exhibition or building. There was, in short, a more dispersed and less specialized interest in matters artistic. Apparently, the sheer vanity, the crass desire of possession, that lies at the bottom of so many modern collections, and incidentally makes the fortune of so many unscrupulous dealers, was entirely absent.

These genial conditions could not last. When the tide set from Paris and Barbizon, it was inevitable that collectors should perceive the inferiority of their American pictures. Robust and uncritical enthusiasm gave way to a rather timid cosmopolitanism. Then came the flood of new wealth, which made picture-buying merely an expensive appanage of great place. The day of the genuine amateur was passing, and that of the dealer had come. The joint tyranny of Barbizon and of commercial collecting simply shattered the market for the American painter. Even portraiture went over to the cleverer and frequently the shallowest commercial travellers of the Paris studios. The success of any American artist for a generation past has depended upon the enlistment of a small and faithful cult of admirers. It is doubtful if this is a more salutary atmosphere than the indiscriminate admiration of sixty years ago. The present condition of art patronage is far from normal. Those who are the natural buyers of pictures are the objects of a perfect conspiracy against personal taste of any kind.

Whenever the desirable adjustment of society to the arts is reached, the condition of New York will be much more like that of the forties than it is like that of to-day. It is interesting to note that the few collectors with whom acquisition is a personal and passionate recreation, are generally the sons of those earlier art patrons who made modest savings in order to get a good landscape of the Hudson River stamp, or a fine religious piece by Huntington. Our emancipation from the dicta of the dealers and the quotations of the auction-rooms will come only from a more intimate relation between the artist and the picture buyer. The old, naïve enthusiasm at least laid the basis of courageous personal standards of taste; this as yet the prevailing cosmopolitanism has signally failed to do.

THE FATHER OF CHEAP NEWSPAPERS.

The French have the centenary habit, too, and some of them are just now

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turning their thoughts to Émile de Girardin, editor of the *Voleur*, the *Presse*, the *France*, the *Petit Journal*, and heaven knows how many other newspapers. The year of his birth (upon which a stain rested) has been variously given, but his own statement is now generally accepted, though it made him out not so old as his enemies were wont to allege. The older biographical dictionaries would have him born in 1802, but Meyer sets down the birthday as June 22, 1806.

It well deserves record as an historic date for modern journalism, since Girardin may be said to have been almost the first to perceive the newspaper opportunity of cheapness multiplied by number. His earliest venture was frankly called the *Robber*, to show that it was made up of bits taken here and there from the existing daily press. To such a defiant origin do our latter-day epitomes of epitomes and digesters of the digested go back! Girardin next flung himself upon the issuing of cheap periodicals containing useful information for the masses. Here belong his *Journal des Connaissances Utiles* (1831), the *Musée des Familles* (1832), and the rest of the progeny. This suggests the corresponding work of the Chamberses and of William Knight in England. Spurred on by the success of these publications, sold at the then unheard-of price of about two cents a week, Girardin went on to his great experiments in cheap daily journalism. The *Presse* was born. Selling for half the price of other papers, it gave double the amount of printed matter. Cutting loose from the political subserviency and the cliquish support which marked the rival newspapers of the day, the *Presse* made politics play second fiddle, exalted the news features —above all, introduced the *feuilleton*. It also exceeded all others in the amount of advertisements. Furiously denounced by his competitors, one of whom, Armand Carrel of the *National*, he killed in a duel, Girardin yet pressed on to power and fortune. After the fall of Napoleon III. struck off the chains of the French press, his greatest opportunity came, and with the *Soleil* and the *Petit Journal* he achieved enormous circulations. Till the Dreyfus affair, the *Petit Journal* maintained its issue of 1,000,000 copies. Latterly, we are informed, it has somewhat declined, and the *Petit Parisien* has taken its place as the most widely read newspaper in France.

Girardin, however, was more than a journalistic sensation-monger. He had education. He had ideas. With the best intellectual life of France he was in close touch. His political convictions do not seem to have been constant. He was always ardent, always in the thick of the fighting, but it was sometimes doubtful on which side his blows would fall. Castelar reproached him for a certain vacillation, declaring that he was not "true to an ideal." He appears to have had that opportunism which is the temptation, while it is also in the very atmosphere, of the press, in an exaggerated form. He was both for and against Louis Napoleon. He was for monarchy and republic with equal zeal. This inconstancy lends an added grain of bitterness to his own melancholy reflection, at the end of his days: "The true name of the press is oblivion."

Still, if his light burned uncertainly, it was brilliant. The salons of his even more famous wife attracted the cleverest men and women in Paris. Sainte-Beuve has described the beautiful creature, Madame de Girardin, "thrown into that artist world with the literary stamp upon it, and with a certain sort of artificial air of journalism about it." Writing in the Figaro, Henry Roujon recalls a scene in the most troubled days of 1848. The witty, glancing Delphine was entertaining a roomful of poets, politicians, and ladies. Girardin had excused himself to go write one more savage article against Gen. Cavaignac. All the talk was of the perilous situation. "Who will get us out of it?" Madame Girardin lifted her hand towards heaven. "He who is above." "You mean God?" "Surely not; Émile." The latter was certainly a dashing figure. In that same 1848, his office was besieged by a furious mob, sworn to have his life. His friends were in terror. One of them went to beg him to slip out unobserved. "That is beyond my power. I said I would go at eight, and at eight I will go. You may stay and do me the honor of offering me your arm, if you like." Precisely at eight the two left the building. Passing through the first ranks of the crowd, his friend whispered in his ear: "They have not recognized you." "In that case," said Girardin aloud, "present me to these gentlemen." It was done. The mob applauded.

Girardin's appeal was frankly to the masses, but it was an intellectual appeal that he made. He believed in cheap newspapers, but not in cheap and nasty. Immense publicity was the breath of his nostrils; he boldly said that everything must be got before the people, and they left to judge of all; yet he was convinced that the energy of ideas would always overcome, in the end, both the wails of privilege and the clamors of ignorance. Hence, as Roujon asserts, we cannot afford to neglect a man who played with such sovereign power upon public opinion. "The manuals of literature may pass him by, but the history of the past century cannot be silent about him."

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY AT NEW HAVEN.

NEW HAVEN, April 20, 1906.

The American Oriental Society's meeting here this year was in Easter week, but somewhat earlier in the week than usual, in order to allow those of its members who wished to attend the Franklin celebration to go to Philadelphia in time for the closing exercises there. The President of the Society, Dr. Gilman, was also the Society's delegate to this Bicentenary; and as his address formed the opening feature of the Oriental Meeting, the customary Thursday commencement was set back to Tuesday. Considering this set-back and the concurrence of the attractive celebration in Philadelphia, there was a generous supply of papers and a larger number of members present—forty-five in all—than was to have been expected. The proverbial bad weather of Quaker Meeting Week seemed to have been obviated by the change of time, and the Society had a very successful meeting in every way.

Dr. Gilman's able address was on Recent American Contributions to our Knowledge of the Orient, in which he reviewed briefly the literary and geographical work done in the last few years; the latest output of the press and of the out-of-doors explorer being impartially considered. At a later session the members passed by a rising vote a motion to express to Dr. Gilman their grateful appreciation of the zeal and devotion he has shown the Society as its president for thirteen years. Of the fifty-two papers presented, some were read by title only; the rest were read either in abstract or in full. Only the latter class can here be considered.

To begin with the Farther East, Dr. John C. Ferguson of Shanghai sent a communication likely to be of interest to a wider circle than that of professed Orientalists. The examination-system in China, by which officials used to be selected, was the subject of a paper read before the Society many years ago. Dr. Ferguson gave in his present paper the last judgment pronounced upon this system by the leading men of China. It was in the form of a Memorial presented to the Throne during the summer of 1905, together with the Imperial Edict of Sept. 2, by which this much lauded system was abolished. Both Memorial and Edict were translated in full by Dr. Ferguson, and will appear in the next volume of the Society's *Journal*. The Memorial was prepared by the Tartar General of Mukden, several viceroys, and the Governor of Hunan. It sets forth the necessity, "due to the need of national preservation," of abolishing at once the "eight-legged examination" and substituting therefor schools of lower and higher grades, after the model of Western countries. Gradual abolition as a basis of reform, the memorialists aver, would not be sufficiently effective, as it would take more than twenty years before "men of talent" could be made available. To summarize the chief points of this important document: China (it says) is ridiculed abroad on the ground that it is non-progressive; peace will soon be declared between Russia and Japan, when the affairs of China will be in a still more dangerous condition. Schools will put an end to superstition and belief in idle rumors. The people will become more intelligent and more patriotic. China will become wealthy and strong. The old examinations promoted men of no moral character and no general intelligence, while the people at large have remained unedu-

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cated. Schools will result in better literature, higher civilization, greater respect abroad, and more peace at home. The new system will, however, not injure but further classical education, as well as encourage work in fresh fields left untouched by the old examination. Students should be sent to foreign normal schools to learn how to become teachers and found normal schools at home.

Other points touched upon by the memorialists are the relation of State service to the schools, the length of the course, preferment, etc. The Edict resulting from this Memorial recognizes the crisis which China is now passing through and the country's need of men of "talents and abilities," admits that a gradual change, such as that proposed in 1898, is not what is needed, and continues:

"We therefore command that, beginning from the Ping Wu (1906) Cycle, all competitive examination for literary degrees after the old style shall be henceforth abolished. . . . We also approve of the other suggestions. . . . We are certain that the official classes and gentry throughout the Empire, on learning of this, will enthusiastically set about to start as many schools as possible and thus give the blessings of modern education to every subject of the Throne."

In conclusion, directions for distributing text-books are given, and officials are urged to "make haste to establish primary schools in all towns, hamlets, and villages." This is probably the most thorough and radical change ever introduced into the educational system of any land. It completely reverses China's position, and, if carried out, will be of inestimable benefit to the country.

Papers of universal application were few in number, most of the scholars attending the meeting being specialists who were content to abide in the field of their peculiar labors. These fell in general into the two groups of Aryan, or Indo-Iranian, and Semitic studies. A few were sent by scholars physically unable to be present; among them the aged but ever-active Professor Mills, an American scholar long domiciled at Oxford, who frequently publishes a fresh text of the Yasnas, the sacred writings of the Zoroastrians, and contributed one of these on this occasion. Of the few papers presented of wider scope, Prof. Toy's "Decay of Totemism" was one to attract especial attention. It treated of the different causes, internal and external, leading to a decline in the stringency of totemic observances. Especially emphasized were the effects produced by the individual, as opposed to the clan, the establishment of *manitou* totems, the "honorific" totem, the widening of tribal relations and state organizations. Professor Toy spoke deprecatingly of the effort to prove that domestication of plants and animals arose from totemism, rightly claiming that the process represented by this theory, advocated by Jevons, inverts the order of events. Another paper of general ethnological interest was presented by Miss Margaretta Morris, who, in continuation of her studies of Borneo, recently published in the Society's *Journal*, offered an interesting description of Malay customs in an essay on "Race and Custom in the Malay Archipelago"; the inter-relation of custom and racial peculiarities being well brought out, to show that identical customs are not indicative of racial integrity. The special essays included Sanskrit, Persian, Semitic, Egyptian, and Chinese studies, mainly technical, though some might well be grouped as historical.

India was represented by several papers. A linguistic phenomenon found in all languages was shown by Prof. Lanman to have affected the reading of Vedic texts. As the surd at the end of the first word in the phrase "hoped (hōpt) to" may lead in English to an actual change of tense, when such a phrase is orally passed to a stenographer who hears it (owing to very careless enunciation) as "hope to," so in a Vedic text *tád dyám eti* is corrupted to *tád yám eti*, the missing verbal accent still indicating the loss of the consonant. The subject of Vedic corruption was also treated by Professor Bloomfield, who remarked on the Hindu notion that the holy Vedas were not to be tampered with, and contrasted with this view the opinion usually held by Western scholars, namely, that a senseless complex may legitimately be made to have a meaning if an emendation can effect this result. The Rig Veda has, of course, many passages which require emendation, and some Vedic examples were given to show how a little ingenuity may play the same part in this field of tradition as has been played by it in classic literature. Only a Brahman could object to this thesis, though doubtless it will be as impossible here as elsewhere to restrict the fanciful outflow of "emended" texts when Sanskrit scholars once begin to get busy with conjectures. As a general rule, ninety-nine emendations in a hundred convince only the ingenious emendator; but if a peck of eyes may be sacrificed to establish the correctness of one surgical operation, ninety-nine emendations may be cheerfully examined and rejected if only one passage stand out clarified.

Studies of various Sanskrit words were offered by Prof. Fay, and a special class, onomatopoetic words, was treated by Mr. J. H. Moore. Here, also, much is debatable ground, and a certain degree of probability is as much as one is likely to attain even with the greatest exercise of caution. Of historical value were the studies on the Jaiminīya Brāhmana by Prof. Oertel, the translation of the Dūtāngada, one of the Rāma cycle of plays of the thirteenth century, for the first time translated into English by Dr. Gray, and Mr. Haas's paper on the ten kinds of Sanskrit drama. Only one paper on Buddhism was presented. In this, Prof. Hopkins examined various texts to see how far the Buddhists originally went in objecting to meat as an article of food. Numerous passages from the Vinaya, Suttas, and Jātakas were cited to show that there was no rule against eating meat; the sin of injury and slaughter of animals not including the later sin of eating the flesh of an animal already killed, unless the killing took place especially to provide the eater with meat and with the latter's knowledge and consent. Present-day conditions in India were interestingly exhibited on a small scale by Miss Lucia Grieve, who brought with her the paraphernalia of a Brahman woman's domestic worship and showed the Society how the service was actually performed.

From Persia (or Russia) came a Baku temple-inscription, for the first time interpreted by Dr. Abbott of Bombay. Prof. Jackson, in his Indo-Iranian Notes, made a bridge connecting India and Persia, and presented as well a special paper on the Zoroastrians of Yezd, which was well illustrated by photographic views. Some Indo-European etymologies were suggested by Prof. Haupt, who thus again bridged the narrowing chasm between Aryan and Semite. It might, indeed, be said that in our Eastern possessions there was no longer a linguistic break of this sort, as Aryan and Semite mingle confusedly in the Philippine Islands. From this part of the world came the materials Dr. Blake has taken in charge in his Tagalog papers, "Contributions to Comparative Tagalog Grammar," and "Expression of Case by the Verb in Tagalog." Another paper by the same writer treated of the syntax of the noun in Semitic.

On the Semitic side the paper of most general interest was that of Professor Jastrow, on the question, Did the Babylonian temples have libraries? The result attained by an examination of the material at hand fails to support the view that general libraries were preserved in the temples. Another paper by Professor Jastrow, on Tabi-Utul-Bel, gave an extremely interesting parallel to the problem of human suffering as treated in Job. The writer was a King cured by prayer to the gods. In his sickness the priests of the four classes availed not. Only the gods themselves, he was at last convinced, could help him, and he sings their praises after the cure was effectual. Presumption, he seems to imply, was his sin—perhaps his own deification and exaltation of himself as a divinity. If this interpretation be correct, it would, in Professor Jastrow's opinion, point, as do other circumstances, to a great antiquity, for the deification of the King is found only in the earliest literature. Other interesting Semitic papers were those of Professor Lyon on female votaries in the days of Hammurabi, seal impressions on contracts, illustrated by slides, and abbreviated legal expressions. In regard to the first, Professor Lyon held that these "sisters of the gods" were not disreputable women, but vestal virgins. Professor Gottheil took up a more modern period, and gave an extremely attractive account of Muhammad Abdu, late Mufti of Egypt, who died last year at the age of fifty-five. Another paper of Dr. Gottheil discussed a distinguished family of Fatemide Cadis in the tenth century.

A description, by Professor Moore, of a so-called Egyptian ephod, previously supposed to be the prototype of the high priest's garment in the Old Testament, brought out the fact that the leather garment in question was not an ephod, was probably not Egyptian, and possibly was only a sham cuirass, worn by an officer of the court, somewhat as a court sword is worn. Professor Torrey illustrated the Semitic objection to disagreeable implications after the second personal pronoun. If one says, "He said you are (*i. e.*, I was) evil," the "you" must be avoided by a paraphrase, otherwise the hearer of the tale is injured. A paper by Prof. W. Max Mueller discussed the goddess of the Carthaginians. Other papers in this field were read by title or in brief abstract.

Several distinguished members of the Society, whose death during the last year was

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announced by the Secretary, were commemorated in short addresses by those present at the meeting. Among those who had passed away were the venerable Jules Oppert, Friedrich von Spiegel, and President Harper. Over thirty new members were elected, an unusually large number. Professor Toy was elected president to succeed Dr. Gilman. On Wednesday the Society adjourned to meet again on April 4, 1907, in Philadelphia.

MEETING OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

WASHINGTON, April 21, 1906.

Owing to the Franklin celebration at Philadelphia, the National Academy of Sciences held a session on Monday, April 16, the day before its annual statute meeting, and adjourned at the end of the following Wednesday. The papers may have been fewer than they would have been but for the exceptional circumstances of this year, yet they included four or five of capital importance. Of the sixteen communications, four related to Geology, Geognosy, and Palæontology, three to Zoölogy, one to Botany, two to General Physics, two to Heliography, one to Statistical Psychology, and one to Logic; while two were memoirs of deceased members, George P. Marsh and Admiral John Rodgers.

In respect to pertinence to the history of these days, the palm must be awarded to Major Dutton's proposed explanation of volcanic eruptions. It was more than thirty years ago that this savant submitted to the Academy evidences that the centres of volcanic actions have nothing to do with the supposed molten interior of the earth, but are, on the contrary, never more than five miles below the surface; and by the majority of students of the subject his argument has been accepted as substantial proof of this. There are some difficulties, it is true, of which the greatest has been that neither Major Dutton nor anybody else could specify any adequate cause for so enormous an evolution of heat in the upper crust of the earth. Stromboli, for example, certainly reminds one strongly of a geyser; and for many reasons it is generally believed that the more immediate cause of any volcanic eruption is the penetration of sea-water into some space where it is subjected to considerable heat and to tremendous pressure, and sets up some chemical action which suddenly liberates a titanic energy. It is very difficult to believe that sea water ever can penetrate to any considerable fraction of the radius of the spheroid of the earth, and yet it has hitherto seemed impossible to specify any probable cause for the heat requisite to kindle any great chemical action only a few miles underground. The discovery of radio-activity at once suggested the interrogation whether this might not be the cause sought. Major Dutton, in his new paper, shows that it might supply sufficient energy, not only for kindling a chemical action, but even for producing the eruption directly. It still remains to find evidence that it actually, or even that it probably, furnishes either the whole heat or the kindling heat that is required. Thus far, no known source of radium and no known product of radio-activity has been signalized in lavas or in the beds where volcanic action has its probable centre; nevertheless, there is no reason to deny the presence of radium there.

Our leading palæontologist, Prof. H. F. Osborn, read a paper by Mr. W. J. Sinclair upon the Bridger beds of Wyoming. We may mention that there is in Wyoming a basin, some two hundred and fifty miles in diameter, called the Green River Basin. Upon the floor of this there are various deposits, some of the lowest of which are known as the Bridger beds. One of the earliest operations of Clarence King's survey of the fortieth parallel was the examination of the Green River Basin. In those days microscopic petrography was not yet practised, and the parties were unsupplied with microscopes. Nevertheless, it was distinctly made out that some of the deposits in the basin were formed of débris from the erosion of the Uinta Mountains, while some other deposits were as clearly volcanic; but the provenance of the material of the Bridger beds was not ascertained. That they are largely lacustrine appeared clearly from the great numbers of fossil turtles and crocodiles found in them, and it was commonly assumed that they were composed of erosional matter. But Mr. Sinclair, in a most thorough search, could not discover the least bit of any. These beds, therefore, must be wholly volcanic, and Mr. Sinclair thinks it probable that the same conclusion may be extended to all the other Eocene basins of the Rocky Mountain region.

Professor Osborn also read a paper of his own upon the faunal and geological succession in Eocene and Oligocene basins of the Rocky Mountain region. He began by mentioning the prodigious multitude of fossils that had been collected, and the enormous amount of isolated study that had been made of the separate specimens. The time has now, he said, only just begun for putting the results together, and the present paper was understood to be merely preliminary to this further work. At the beginning of the geological age to which the paper refers, no ancestor of our present mammals was to be found on this continent, and some great change must have taken place by which these mammals were introduced. Last year, however, an armadillo was found at the bottom of the Bridger beds, and the White River basin affords a large number of new types derived from Europe.

The director of the Geological Survey, Dr. Charles D. Walcott, gave a résumé of the results obtained from the study of the collections of the Carnegie Institution expedition to China, under Messrs. Bailey Willis and Eliot Blackwelder. They brought home collections of fossils showing the faunas of the Middle Cambrian especially, but also of the Lower and of the lower part of the Upper Cambrian; the latter agreeing substantially with that of the upper Mississippi basin. The fauna of the Lower Cambrian was found to be of the same type as that of the Cambrian of the Salt Range of India, which is thus at last definitely placed. Furthermore, the fauna of the Middle Cambrian in China turns out to be altogether comparable to that of the Middle Cambrian of Mt. Stephen in British Columbia and of Utah and Nevada. And again, for the first time a species of cephalopod has been found in the Cambrian, four or five hundred feet below the top of the Cambrian limestones, and it agrees with the predictions of Hyatt, although the very simplest form which he expected has not yet been unearthed. Lantern illustrations were shown of 217 species, trilobites, brachiopods, gasteropods, and half a dozen other orders. The memoir was evidently regarded by the geologists as of unusual importance even among the works of Dr. Walcott.

The chief zoölogical paper was read by Dr. Agassiz with his inimitable hereditary charm of manner, in his own name and that of Dr. H. L. Clark. It related to the classification of certain sea-urchins called the *Cidaridæ*, of which the very same genera have subsisted from the Jurassic era down through all the ages of geological life even to this day. The spatial range of single forms is as remarkable as their duration. One form may extend from the shore to a depth of eleven or twelve hundred fathoms. The shore species are naturally more widely distributed than the deep species, because they are transported by tides and other currents. The material studied for this work of classification embraced select specimens and series of thirty-four of the sixty-four species found. The classifications hitherto proposed have rested too much upon single features, especially upon the shapes of the spines with which these creatures are covered or upon the tubercles which are only the beginnings of spines. They have, moreover, often resulted from the examination of single specimens of the different species. The consequence has been that Messrs. Agassiz and Clark would now and then find a single individual which, according to the definitions, belonged at once to two or three different genera. The new study, conducted with far fuller collections and (we may venture to say) with equally greater diligence, has brought out a classification that has none of the inconveniences of former attempts. In commenting upon this paper, the eminent naturalist and ethnologist, Dr. Edward S. Morse, in trenchant terms added the weight of his disapproval of the too common practice of basing not merely definitions of species, but even classifications, upon single characters.

A memoir on the life history of Pterophryne, by Dr. Theodore Gill, was read only by title, but perhaps we may hope to enjoy the perusal of it in the quarterly issue of the Smithsonian Collections. We were not entirely deprived of the pleasure of listening to Dr. Gill's refined and clear elocution, for he gave us a very curious account of a phenomenon found in the Sargasso Sea. It seems that this sea is full of small globular snarls of seaweed which are hollow and which contain fish-eggs. Now because these nests are so ubiquitous in that sea; and because by far the commonest of the fishes there is the so-called Sargasso fish, which is a sort of pediculate, the *Pterophryne histrio*; and further, because the eggs of these nests were believed to resemble eggs known to belong to fish allied to the Sargasso fish; and, still further, because the peculiar fins of this fish seemed adapted to building the nests, it has been unhesitatingly taken for granted by all naturalists, beginning with Louis Agassiz, who first described the balls of seaweed, and including Alexander Agassiz, who has collected and still pos-

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sesses a number of them, that the eggs are those of the Sargasso fish. But Dr. Gill thinks this cannot be. Setting out from the assumption that the eggs are not fertilized before being deposited—such a phenomenon being quite unprecedented, except among ganoid fishes and their allies—he remarks that it seems quite impossible that they should be fertilized after they are thickly wrapped in the globe of seaweed. Therefore, we must suppose they were fertilized before being wrapped up. Then, because a hollow ball would be far more easily shaped by a creature inside it than by one which should be compelled to swim all over its convex surface in correcting its form, and also because the hypothesis comports better with what we know of the habits of fishes, he assumes that the ball is formed around the fertilized eggs by these eggs themselves, which are provided with long filaments that seem peculiarly fit for such work. Next, among all the fish that naturalists have remarked in the Sargasso Sea, the only one which is at all likely to have eggs like those of the nests are the *Exocetidæ*, or flying fishes, which abound round the borders of the rafts of seaweed; and Dr. Gill propounds the hypothesis that these, being surface-fishes, deposit the eggs just under the surface of the water, where they are incontinently fertilized, after which the eggs, by automatic motions of their filaments, wind themselves up in balls of seaweed. Mr. Agassiz, as was quite proper (for there is a system of advocacy even in science; only it is held in check by a genuine desire to learn the very truth), raised such objections as he could to Dr. Gill's hypothesis, urging that there were no flying-fish in the Sargasso Sea. But Dr. Gill, though he had never himself been in this unfrequented wilderness of the ocean, cited sundry authorities who named the flying-fish among the chief denizens of this region, next after the Sargasso fish itself; and among these authorities Alexander Agassiz was preëminent.

The truth perhaps is, that even exploring steamers avoid penetrating the great rafts of seaweed, that all about their borders flying fish abound, and whether there are or are not many of the nests in the middle parts of the great rafts is not known. The Sargasso Sea is a great whirlpool, as large as the United States, its centre is eleven feet lower than the surrounding sea-level, and it is in a region of calms. Consequently, it is a bad place for either a sailing vessel or for a steamer, whose screw might get all snarled up in seaweed, so as to be retarded, or stopped, or even broken.

Of the two papers on General Physics, one was by the world-renowned chemist, J. M. Crafts. It related to determinations of temperature between 100° and 350° C. After sketching the history of thermometry, beginning with an account of the Florence collection of thermometers supposed to have been made by Galileo, and coming down to the unrivalled thermometers of Baudin, *père et fils*, and to the new kinds of glass made by Schott of Jena, of which he mentioned one particular borosilicate of calcium and sodium as the most suitable for thermometers (noting by the way that glasses containing both sodium and potassium acted badly, showing not only a lag in their expansion, but, still more strangely, a lag in their expansibility), he mentioned that chemical thermometers always suffer a rise of their zero points, which sometimes amounts to twenty or more degrees of the Centigrade scale. Nevertheless, some physicists express their determinations of temperatures to thousandths of a degree, and Dr. Craft thinks that the errors can be brought within a hundredth of a degree. For that purpose, it is desirable to have as many liquids as possible, each capable of entire purification, freezing at a definite temperature, boiling at a constant temperature, and not undergoing spontaneous decomposition. Mercury and water are held to be two such substances. The only others that Dr. Crafts has been able to find are naphthalene and benzophenone. In order to use these, it is necessary to know their boiling-points under all pressures, or, what is the same thing, their vapor densities or tensions at all temperatures, or say at five-degree intervals from their freezing-points to the point of softening of glass. In the course of his own well-known researches, Dr. Crafts did this for himself. But methods have since been improved, and glass has been greatly improved, and it is more than desirable that the work should now be done by some bureau of standards. The other physical paper was by Professor Pupin, who, in a narrative of entrancing interest, carried us through the whole course of mathematical reasonings, of experiments, trials, and exercises, by which he finally attained success in getting his coils for cables made and adjusted without highly expert workmen.

The two papers on heliography were by the two chief masters of that subject, Hale the former, and Campbell the present; director of the Yerkes Observatory. Dr. Hale's spectro-heliograph has already been briefly explained in this journal, showing how he photographs the sun at different levels of its atmosphere. He has now mounted on Mt. Wilson, California, a five-foot spectro-heliograph, such as could of course never be carried on any equatorial telescope, and has obtained new and most surprising photographs, which were thrown upon the screen; but you could not afford the space for any description of them or of this most ingenious and superb instrument. The paper of Dr. Campbell, who availed himself of the collaboration of Dr. C. D. Perrine, related to observations of the solar corona by an exceedingly interesting and ingenious method, the description of which must likewise be postponed. One very interesting result is, that the matter of the fibres of the solar corona are at rest relatively to the sun, or at any rate have no motion greater than one kilometre per second.

Of the two remaining papers, one, by Professor Cattell, on the distribution of the thousand American Men of Science given in his just published volume bearing that title can hardly be said to have been read, so very brief was the time allotted for it. The other was a long paper by Mr. C. S. Peirce, on the Method of Existential Graphs, by means of which he showed that this system gives a sort of diagram of the mind in reasoning, and also that there is, strictly speaking, but one way in which the different logical elements of any concept or judgment are combined; namely, by each being indefinite or indeterminate in some respect in which another element renders it determinate.

Correspondence.

INTELLECTUAL ALLIANCE BETWEEN ITALY AND THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I desire to inform the American public through your columns of a plan which, if put into effect, as we who are engaged in it are now encouraged confidently to hope, ought to have far-reaching consequences for good in the development of American culture. This plan contemplates nothing less than a formal intellectual alliance between Italy and the United States, the object of which shall be to bring the citizens of these countries into as close a relation as possible, more especially on the side of their higher intellectual life. It will be observed that the scheme is somewhat similar, though wider in scope, to that of the Alliance Française. It embraces five principal objects, to wit:

(1.) The exchange of popular lectures between Italy and the United States. Since the intention is to reach as wide a public as possible, some of the lectures in the United States would be in English, and some of those in Italy in Italian.

(2.) The establishment of Italian professorships in American universities and of American professorships in Italian universities. This would mean both permanent chairs in the higher institutions of each country and the temporary residence of Italian professors in America and of American professors in Italy. Since, of course, Italian studies are already recognized in America, and English studies in Italy, one of the chief ends to be secured by this arrangement would be instruction, for America in Italian literature in the Italian language, and for Italy in English literature in the English language. The interchange of professors would also enable the teachers of each country to study and profit by the educational methods of the other.

(3.) The establishment in every part of the United States of clubs for the cultivation of Italian literature and art. Besides literary and musical gatherings of a more popular nature, vacation studies of the sort already familiar to Americans from "Chautauqua" and similar organizations, and free Italian circulating libraries, this part of the enterprise would include the systematic study of the Italian language and literature by those who have leisure and inclination to take them up, thus giving paid employment to native Italian teachers.

(4.) The exchange of students between Italian and American universities in such wise as would enable a student of either country to pursue courses in the institutions of the other, which, when properly certificated, should be recognized by the faculties at home. It is also desired that younger students be sent from one country to the other, and find homes in private families. This plan has already been tried with success between various countries of

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the Continent of Europe. Such exchange of younger students would be under the control of an international committee of ladies. Competitive scholarships would also be established for indigent and deserving students.

(5.) The establishment of an Italo-American literary review, to be printed chiefly in English, but also partly in Italian. This periodical would endeavor to promote the interests of the Alleanza Italo-Americana, and to keep all its members informed of the progress of the work. It would also aim to inform all English-speaking peoples in regard to the intellectual and material progress of modern Italy, and to increase among them the knowledge of Italian literature and art, both ancient and modern, by means of original articles and book reviews.

The prime mover in this enterprise is our countryman, Prof. Joseph Spencer Kennard, D.C.L., Litt.D., well known as a writer in both the English and Italian languages on subjects connected with Italian literary history. During a visit to Rome last December, he was received in audience by the King, who expressed warm interest in a project whose object is to bring his people into close social and intellectual relations with the United States. Nothing else, indeed, was to be expected from so enlightened a monarch as Victor Emanuel III. Dr. Kennard also had interviews with other gentlemen distinguished in literary, official, and educational circles, all of whom expressed their keen interest and promised their active assistance, which they have already begun to lend; while reports and articles in the daily press have elicited warm approval from the Italian public generally. Active negotiations are now in progress in both countries, and it is hoped that their successful conclusion can soon be announced.

H. Edmiston.

Rome, April 7, 1906.

LITERATURE VERSUS PHILOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I sincerely wish that our college authorities could be induced to take to heart the excellent suggestions contained in your editorial on the "Teaching of Literature in Colleges." The scientific method, when applied to literature, is a miserable perversion of a principle that is excellent when employed in its place. Some years ago I was discussing with a university president the qualifications of a certain candidate for an instructorship in the French language and literature. One of his first questions was: "Has he made his Ph.D.?" My reply was: "No; but he has lived some years in France; has read French literature under several noted professors whose certificate of proficiency he holds, and speaks and writes the language with a correctness that is unusual with a foreigner. I consider him ten times better fitted for the work he would have to do than if he had made his Ph.D. by a dissertation on the vocabulary of Rabelais, or something similar, without having read anything else, without having set foot on French soil, and without being able to pronounce correctly three French words in succession." Recently I was called upon to look over some recommendations of a candidate for a professorship of English literature. They laid stress upon the fact that said candidate had spent some years in Berlin in the study of Anglo-Saxon, Middle English, etc. I said I would not give a bawbee for all this. Besides, I did not consider a German university the place in which to make preparation for teaching English literature.

I believe if we were to select the score of persons who are now doing most for the cause of English letters, either by way of production or elucidation, not one of them would be found qualified for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. A taste for literature and the capacity to appreciate its beauties cannot be acquired by the minute study of a single author, especially if it be one of little merit, to the exclusion of all others. A distaste can. The Greeks knew better, as is evinced, among other things, by the custom of requiring boys to learn the Homeric Poems by heart. In the Alexandrian era, when the philological method came into vogue, literature had passed into a decline. The more these epigones dissected and analyzed the works of their predecessors, the worse became their own productions. There is no evidence that any of these grammarians and philologists produced anything worthy to be classed as literature. When some one upbraided George Buchanan for making a pedant of his royal pupil, he replied that it was the best he could do with him. In like manner, it is perhaps to be said in extenuation of these Alexandrian critics and their modern successors that they did, and are still doing, the best they can. That England and France have, during the last two centuries, contributed so much more to the sum of the world's literary product than Germany, is doubtless due in no small measure to the conditions that in those countries the philological or scientific method of studying the ancient classics never gained the upper hand to the extent it did beyond the Rhine. It is to be hoped and expected that when the young Americans who, in increasing numbers, are studying in France and England, shall make their influence felt in their native land, a more rational method of teaching literature, whether ancient or modern, will gradually come into vogue.

Charles W. Super.

Athens, O., April 14, 1906.

ON NIETZSCHE TRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is quite pathetic to watch the conscientious perseverance with which some of your correspondents are berating the English-reading public for its moral turpitude and intellectual degradation in steadfastly declining to buy certain translations of that distinguished immoralist, Nietzsche; and it has occurred to me that it is time something were said in behalf of the incriminated public.

In the first place, has the thought never suggested itself—if not to the translators, at least to the publishers—that the public may have perceived that these translations were *bad*, and even in one case (Zarathustra) almost grotesque?

In the second place, may not the public have detected that the author was *mad*, and have stupidly regarded this as a drawback to the serious study of his works? For the Anglo-Saxon world certainly does not seem to feel the reverential awe for the divine madness of genius which is common further East. And so far from letting brilliance atone for lack of sanity, it is positively terrified by the union of these qualities. It likes, moreover, to take its morals very seriously, and without corruption by epigrams. It prosaically judges Nietzsche to be nonsense, and does not see how suggestive and funny he is. Not that it does not like nonsense, but that Nietzsche's is not the kind of nonsense that it likes. It prefers Mrs. Eddy's 'Christian Science,' and Lear's nonsense rhymes, and Lewis Carroll. And yet I dare be sworn that none of these works, if translated into German, would take the public fancy.

The fact is that there are national differences of taste, and it is a mistake to make them into occasions for international recrimination. It is by no means safe, therefore, to anticipate the literary success of an English translation of a book which has been widely read in Germany or France. For example, Weininger's 'Sex and Character' contains apparently just the right mixture of craziness and contempt for woman with pseudo-philosophy to please the popular taste in Germany, where it has in consequence run through six editions. But I should not like to be financially interested in its success with English readers. Ninety-nine out of every hundred it will probably disgust and bore. The hundredth will perceive how screamingly funny it is, but will find it much too long. Not that Nietzsche is to be compared with Weininger. He was a great stylist, who worked wonders with the stiffest German idioms. But, for this very reason, he loses greatly even by a good translation.

It seems permissible, lastly, to doubt whether in the end all the more theatrical of Nietzsche's ideas, the "Superman," the "Blonde Wild Beast," and the "Slave Morality," etc., are not quite as nonsensical as they seem to the Anglo-Saxon philistine. The profound truth, on the other hand, contained in Nietzsche's conception of the "translation" of values, he probably does not perceive. But if he did, it would annoy him very much. For what could be more exasperating than to have to recognize that our stablest notions are forever undergoing transformation? In this the philistine is probably mistaken. But it is by no means clear that he is equally wrong in thinking that Nietzsche had best be read in German.

F. C. S. Schiller

Corpus Christi College, Oxford,
April 9, 1906.

BEACHCOMBER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of April 5, your reviewer of Miss Laut's 'Vikings of the Pacific' takes exception to the author's use of "beachcomber" for a wave instead of a person. Permit me to call attention to the respectable support Miss Laut has in this use of the word. The Standard Dictionary defines beachcomber as "1. [U. S.] A long wave rolling up on the beach. 2. An idle or vicious vagrant about wharves and beaches at seaports." Substantially the

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same definitions are given in Webster's International and the Century.

The word is occasionally heard in both senses in this region, especially on the shores of Puget Sound. The shores of the Sound and of the Pacific are frequently strewn with logs cut for lumber, shingle-bolts, and sawn lumber carried up and left by the tide. Dwellers along the beaches sometimes gather these and use them in constructing their houses, or tow them to neighboring mills and dispose of them. The act is called beachcombing, and the man who lives by it, especially if not over-nice about what he appropriates, is called a beachcomber. A long rolling wave that comes in and sweeps a beach clean of such deposits, either by carrying them high up on the beach or out again to the sea, is also sometimes called a beachcomber. The term used in this connection does not seem altogether unfitting. J. R. WILSON.

PORTLAND, ORE., April 14, 1906.

[The only authority for the use of "beachcomber" in the sense of 'breaker' is Bartlett, in his Dictionary of Americanisms. He gives no authority for his definition, and no citation from literature. Other dictionaries have merely copied Bartlett, without instances. Twenty years' intimate acquaintance with seamen, fishermen, sealers, and whalers on the Pacific has not afforded a single instance of its oral use, in that sense, to the reviewer. The use referred to by Mr. Wilson seems derivative from the use of the term in the sense of scraping or carrying away from the beach, applicable to the marine hobo, as previously indicated by the reviewer.—ED. NATION.]

A MISREPRESENTATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The New York Publishing Society (sometime the Century History Company and the Publishing Society of Wisconsin) has recently issued a work in four volumes entitled 'Wisconsin in Three Centuries.' I have not yet seen the publication in its entirety, but am credibly informed that I am blazoned on the title-page thereof as being "chairman" of its "board of editors." My sole connection with this enterprise is the fact that I wrote the brief introduction, purely as a matter of friendly courtesy to the author, Mr. Henry Colin Campbell, managing editor of the Milwaukee *Journal*, he having shown me the proof of his first volume, and his monographic work in connection with the Parkman Club publications being well and favorably known to me. This act of courtesy did not make me an "editor" of the work, much less the chairman of any so-called "board of editors" thereof. My several vigorous protests to the publishers against this unwarranted use of my name have proved unavailing, and all that appears possible now to do is to request my fellow-librarians not to catalogue the work under my name. Whatever merits or demerits it may possess, should in justice be attributed wholly to Mr. Campbell, who, I am glad to be able to say, appears to have been in no way responsible for the peculiar advertising methods of his publishers. Librarians would confer a still further service by pasting a clipping of this disavowal within the work itself, so that investigators may be informed as to the facts in the case.

REUBEN G. THWAITES.

MADISON, WIS., April 18, 1906.

A REJOINDER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 5, you print a letter from Prof. F. H. Dixon, of Dartmouth College, which states that Prof. H. R. Meyer, "under cover of an apparent erudition, is quite superficial, and that he is in many places guilty either of deliberate misrepresentation or of inexcusable ignorance." That statement Professor Dixon makes on the strength of a review of 'Government Regulation of Railway Rates,' written by Privy Councillor v. d. Leyen, who since 1880 has been an officer in the Prussian Ministry of Public Works.

I shall not ask you to allow me to use your newspaper for the purpose of replying to gentlemen who charge me with dishonesty and charlatanry but refrain completely from seeking to overthrow the propositions set forth in 'Government Regulation of Railway Rates.' In justice, not to myself, but to the public policy which I advocate, I shall, however, ask you to publish this letter, which shall close with the statement that in the *Journal of Political Economy* for April, 1906, issued by the University of Chicago, I shall reply at length to the criticisms upon 'Government Regulation of Railway Rates.'

I am, your obedient servant,

HUGO R. MEYER.

DENVER, April 19, 1906.

SANCTA SIMPLICITAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Simplified Spelling Board does not advocate any scheme of "fonetic reform," nor does it desire any radical change of any kind. It believes in Sainte-Beuve's suggestion that "orthography is like society: it will never be entirely reformed, but we can at least make it less vicious." Therefore the Board wishes, first of all, to awaken attention to the unfortunate condition of our spelling; and, second, to encourage the tendency toward simplification by the omission of useless letters—a tendency which has been at work from the beginning, and which has made it possible for the *Nation* now to spell *honor, wagon, music, almanac, comedy,* and *fantasy,* instead of *honour, waggon, musicke, almanack, comædy, phantasie.* The Board would like also to restore certain older spellings, which are better than the later perverted forms—*rime,* for example, and *sovran* and *iland.*

A fuller statement of its aims can be had by sending a postal card of inquiry to the Simplified Spelling Board, No. 1 Madison Avenue, New York.

BRANDER MATTHEWS.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, April 21, 1906.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce 'Science and Idealism,' by Prof. Hugo Münsterberg of Harvard.

'Notes on the History and Political Institutions of the Old World,' by Edward Preissig, will shortly be issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A work in five volumes, illustrated by photogravure, entitled 'America and her Insular Possessions,' by Joel Cook and C. H. Forbes-Lindsay, is in the press of the John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia.

Perennial charm of subject combined with literary skill has kept 'A Memoir of Jane Austen,' by her nephew, J. E. Austen Leigh, in steady request since its original appearance in 1869. Meanwhile it has been enlarged, particularly by some inedited tales and fragments of tales, and deserves a place beside the novelist's complete works. The present 16mo edition, in Macmillan's "Eversley Series," is all that could be desired for beauty and handiness.

The edition of Beaumont and Fletcher, in the series of "Cambridge English Classics" (Macmillan Co.), which was begun by Mr. Arnold Glover and is now, since his death, being continued by Mr. A. R. Waller, does not seem to us to possess any advantage over the Variorum edition which is appearing under the general direction of Mr. A. H. Bullen, except that of greater cheapness. It is more limited in scope, being practically a reprint of the Second Folio (1679), without explanatory notes or discussion of sources, etc. It seems a pity that two editions of these plays should be issued concurrently, but, if such was to be the case, the edition which is published under the auspices of the University of Cambridge and which was apparently planned to satisfy the requirements of professional scholars, might surely have been better arranged to attain that object. Why should the editors elect to give us the text of the Second Folio invariably, even in the case of plays of which contemporary Quartos exist? To be sure, the variant readings of the Quartos are recorded at the end of the volume, but a proper editorial method would seem to demand that the readings of this Second Folio, published many years after the authors' deaths by men who had no access to the original manuscripts, should be relegated to this place. For the same reason, moreover, we see no advantage in adhering slavishly to the punctuation of this Folio when the result is so often irritating, as it is in our editors' printed text. Even if we ascribe a sacredness to the blunders of the chance compositor who set up the text, the editor is at liberty to punctuate correctly and then record the blunder in a note. The Early English Text Society, in its handling of mediæval texts, has always been considered justly a model of conservatism in these minor matters of the law, but the editors of the Cambridge English Classics, dealing with periods in which such things are manifestly of secondary importance, threaten far to outdo that society. The first volume of the present edition bears date 1905; two more volumes have been promised for the present month.

It is difficult for the American teacher to imagine to himself exactly the class of

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pupils who would profit by Mr. Percy Simpson's 'Scenes from Old Playbooks' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). In the main the book is made up of familiar extracts from Shakspere's plays—for instance, the quarrel scene between Brutus and Cassius in "Julius Cæsar." Added to these, however, we have a few selections from plays dealing (nearly all) with British history by Marlowe, Ford, and others. Mr. Simpson says that "the book has been edited solely with an eye to young readers." We believe, however, that teachers are hardly likely to depart from the prevailing practice of confining the reading in the Elizabethan drama of pupils at this stage of preparation to the plays of Shakspere, and, moreover, that they will continue to find it more profitable to read with their classes single plays in something like their entirety rather than brief, disconnected extracts such as we have here. It seems to us, indeed, a pity that the Delegates of the Clarendon Press should lend the influence of their authority to such a work as this. The introduction contains an adequate account of the English theatre in Shakspere's day, and the book concludes with a glossary and index of names.

The vexed question of why we are ourselves, or at least wherein we resemble and wherein we differ from other people, is discussed, under the guise of 'The Principles of Heredity,' by G. A. Reid, M.B., etc. (E. P. Dutton & Co.). Physiology, psychology, ontology itself, are pressed into the service in a way better appreciated by the medical philosopher than by the casual reader. It is held that "all the inborn characters of an individual take origin in the germ-plasm whence he sprang" (p. 61), and these characteristics, sometimes separated by thousands of generations, lie ready to be evolved according to conditions. Reversion is held to be an arrest of development, and as a rule "every variation is unstable in proportion to its newness," which is discouraging for Mr. Burbank's plant-breeding. Acquirements are supposed not to be transmissible, and as a concrete example there is denial of inherited gout, just as the mutilated tails of terriers fail to initiate tailless dogs. "The drink-craving," to use another instance, "is an acquirement, and as such is never inherited. But the inborn tendency to acquire it is certainly inborn and inherited" (p. 345). "Conditions adverse to the individual do not tend to cause racial deterioration, beneficial conditions do." "Country blood does not strengthen city blood. It weakens it, for it has been less thoroughly purged of weak elements" (pp. 336-7). These apparent paradoxes depend for their explanation upon the force of "acquirement" and of "habituation." If true at all, the reasoning is in advance of our general knowledge.

Among recent editions of law books which have stood the test of some years' use, we have received the second edition of William Wirt Howe's 'Studies in the Civil Law,' a third edition of John Wilder May's 'Law of Crimes,' edited by Harry Augustus Bigelow, and a second edition of George F. Tucker's 'Manual of Mercantile and Manufacturing Corporations' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.).

'The American Law Relating to Income and Principal,' by Edwin A. Howes, jr., (Little, Brown & Co.), is the title of an excellent little manual on a subject full of difficulty for lawyers and trustees. Bonds, bought at a premium, are held in trust for life-tenant and remainderman; must the trustees create a sinking fund to replace the depreciation in face-value if the bonds are held until maturity? A corporation makes an extra dividend in cash to the trustees; does it belong to principal or income? Is the rule the same in the case of a stock dividend? To whom do "rights" belong? These and other questions like them have occupied the attention of the courts of this country a great deal during the past thirty or forty years, and are, of course, discussed in books on Trusts and Trustees, and Executors and Administrators. But they require treatment in considerable detail, and with very careful discrimination between the conflicting rules laid down in different jurisdictions. Mr. Howes has done this compactly and clearly, and his hand-book will be found very useful.

Lemcke & Buechner send us a new one-volume 'Deutschland' in the Baedeker German series. For the convenience of tourists working on broad lines, whether automobilists or others, and not wishing to be cumbered with detail, it has been carefully made up from the five handbooks into which the original 'Deutschland' of 1842 has by degrees expanded. It is rich in maps which are fairly available for the highroad. The publishers show how it can be dismembered for the various sections.

From the same house comes a vastly useful and convenient addition to the "Manueli Hoepli" of Milan, 'Cronologia e Calendario Perpetuo,' by A. (Adriano?) Capelli. It has no table of contents, and this we will try to supply as a sufficient recommendation of so great a labor. In order, then, we have (1) the chronological series of Roman consuls; (2) parallel chronological tables of the Christian era to 2000 A.D., the Byzantine and Spanish eras, with Easter date for each year, keeping step with the successive Roman emperors and their modern Continental successors (France, Germany, Italy), and Popes; (3) Easter recurrences in the Julian calendar from 1583 to 2000; (4) index to the emperors and kings recorded in (2), with their ruling dates; (5) ancient Roman calendar; (6) perpetual Julian and Gregorian calendar, each double-page table furnishing the type for all the years indicated above, introduced by the same Easter date; (7) glossary of the principal feast days; (8) alphabetical list of the chief saints and *beati*; (9) wanting; (10) the hegira, paralleled by our Christian reckoning; (11) era of the French Republic; (12) chronological table of the principal European sovereigns under geographical alphabetical arrangement—a very important section for ready reference (thus, one may see at a glance all the presidents of the Swiss Confederacy, with their dates). The typography of this little volume is excellent, and the figures clear.

The April Pilot Chart of the North Atlantic, sent out by the Hydrographic Office, is of more than general interest. Suggestions for the use of oil at sea during storms, to prevent the breaking of heavy seas over the deck, are brief and to the point, and are illustrated by many diagrams. Rules of practical application are taken from the prize essay submitted to the Hamburg Nautical Union by Capt. R. Karlowa of the Hamburg-American Steamship Company. By means of arrows and flowing lines, drawn in connection with a ship's hull, to show the direction of wind and sea and spreading oil, most contingencies seem to be provided for, such as "scudding before a gale," "steaming into a heavy head sea," "hove to for a pilot," "drifting in the trough," and the like. In each case the method and place of emitting the oil to best advantage are indicated. It is mentioned, too, that other uses of oil are beneficial, as in lowering and hoisting boats, riding to a sea anchor, and crossing surf on a bar. Raw petroleum gives better results than the refined product, and thick, heavy oils are best, animal or vegetable being generally preferable to mineral; but as cocoanut and certain kinds of fish oils congeal in cold weather, they are not available for this use. Quotations from the masters of numerous steamers and sailing craft employing this means of calming rough seas show an overwhelming array of testimony to its efficacy. The amount of oil required seems to vary from half a gallon per hour to about two gallons and over, though one (only) vessel reports using as much as three gallons.

Very impressive is the second instalment of titles of genealogies in preparation given in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April, with a third to follow. At page 211, the Society's Committee on English Research invites support for a revival of investigation concerning the English ancestry of the pioneers of New England, which has pretty much lapsed since Mr. Waters's retirement. "Clues, not generally known, as to the origin of several early emigrants, have come into the committee's hands," and the secretary, Mr. Joseph Gardner Bartlett, "will be glad to give information to any one who may desire to make investigations."

The Semitic origin and great antiquity of the Rhodesian ruins are denied by Mr. D. R. MacIver in a paper read before the Royal Geographical Society and published, together with the lengthy discussion upon it, in the *Geographical Journal* for April. From personal examination of seven sites, including the Great Zimbabwe, he comes to the conclusion that the ruins belong to one period, mediæval and post-mediæval, and were constructed by a negroid race closely akin to the present dwellers in the country. The majority of speakers at the Society's meeting, mostly experts, disagreed with these conclusions, which were stated with great positiveness and scant courtesy for those who held the commonly-accepted views. The great interest in the subject which was aroused by the paper, and the discussion, may lead to the organization of a Rhodesian Exploration Fund for the scientific investigation of the ruins. If to this work could be joined the examination of the ruins in Arabia, facts of great ethnological and historical value might be brought to light. A journey through the almost unknown interior of Newfoundland, the second made by a white man from the south to the east coast, is described by Mr. J. G. Millais. The director of the New Zealand Geological Survey, Mr. J. M. Bell, gives

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an account of the present condition of the great Tarawera volcanic rift, which is illustrated by some interesting pictures of geysers in action. Dr. Seligmann concludes his narrative of the recent anthropo-geographical investigations in British New Guinea. Its interest, when read before the Society, was greatly increased by biographic films of native life, and the suggestion was made that other travellers be urged to use them as advantageous to the study of anthropology.

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 2, are the conclusion of Dr. Steinmann's account of his expedition in Bolivia, with a table of the heights determined; and a description of the thermic anomalies of the earth's surface, illustrated by twelve monthly charts, by Dr. F. Hopfner. This writer sums them up in the general statement that the southern hemisphere has a definite summer aspect —the land is too warm, the sea too cold— while the northern hemisphere exhibits a tendency to wintry conditions. A similar distinction is to be observed between the eastern and western hemispheres—the one having a mean October, the other an April, climate. An appeal is made by R. Tronnier for facts in regard to changes in the earth's surface. As an illustration of what he desires, he gives instances of changes in 1905, as the disappearance of islands, fall of coast cliffs, avalanches of earth; and man's work, *e. g.*, the removal of a hill in Germany by a railroad company. L. Mylius-Erichsen gives a sketch of what he hopes to accomplish in his "Denmark" expedition to the north coast of Greenland. It will consist of twenty-six men, including three natives of Greenland, six Iceland ponies, and one hundred dogs, and is to start from Copenhagen at the end of next June, and to return at the end of September, 1908.

A Tartar *Times*, a semi-weekly newspaper, published in Orenburg, Russia, and having a circulation in the southern part of that country and in Asia as far as eastern Turkestan, is a fact almost startling to those to whom the word Tartar simply suggests a raiding nomad. Its editor, says Arminius Vámbéry, in a communication to the London *Times*, is a highly educated Tartar gentleman, Mohammed Fatih by name, whose aim is to win over his countrymen to modern civilization and to prepare them for liberty and constitutional rights. It is not the only Tartar newspaper published in Russia, but it is the most southern, and its Asiatic circulation leads Vámbéry to think that it may be the forerunner of a Sarts *Times* to be published in Tashkend.

Shakspere's popularity in Germany, both on the stage and in the universities, is worthy of notice. Professor Schick of Munich, in a recent lecture in London, said that, in 1905, Shakspere's plays were given in 146 theatres, thus surpassing the performances of the works of any other dramatist, the next in order being Wagner, Schiller, Goethe, and Mozart. In Munich there were one or more performances every week, and in some places there were special Shakspere stages. The study of his works has been greatly stimulated by the marked increase in the students of the English language during the past ten years. In the University of Munich there are now six professors of Shakspere, each lecturing from different standpoints, and the Shaksperian lectures draw the largest audiences. In view of these facts, it is not difficult to accept Professor Schick's assertion that no poet of any nation, not excepting Homer, had ever influenced another nation so much as Shakspere had influenced the Germans.

The organization of a Leopold von Ranke Verein has been effected, the purpose being to establish a Ranke Museum in the house in Wiehe where the great historian was born. Publishers and representatives of the universities, and historians from various sections in Germany, constitute the committee of arrangements, Dr. von Boetticher being the chairman. An appeal recently published for Ranke articles suitable for such a museum has brought out an unexpected abundance of material.

The Cultus Ministerium of Bavaria has arranged, in conjunction with that of Hesse, for an archæological object-lesson journey for gymnasium teachers, to be carried out during the Easter recess. The first part of the programme consists of an examination and study of the archæological collections of the University of Würzburg, the superintendent of which, Prof. Paul Wolters, will act as instructor. From here the participants go to Aschaffenburg, to the *Limes* in Odenwald, and then to Erbach, and perhaps by way of Heidelberg to Speyer and its rich museum. The expedition will reach its conclusion in Mainz with study in the Roman and Germanic Museum, where Professor Dragendorf, of the Archæological Institute of Frankfort, will act as instructor, devoting special attention to the ceramic finds of the Roman period. The Speyer Museum, because of its proximity to Rheinzabern, where the greatest Roman pottery north of the Alps was stationed, is especially rich in material for these researches.

As decided upon at the Fourteenth Congress, which was held at Stuttgart, in August, 1904, the Fifteenth Congress of Americanists will be held at Quebec this year under the patronage of the Governor-General of Canada. Dr. Robert Bell, Director of the Geological Survey of Canada, is President of the Committee of Organization; Dr. N. E. Dionne, Librarian of the Legislative Assembly of Quebec, is the General Secretary; and Mr. Alphonse Gagnon, of the Department of Public Works, Quebec, is the Treasurer. The meeting of the Congress will take place in the Legislative Building at Quebec; and the session will be opened on Monday, the 10th, and continue to Saturday, the 15th, of September. The work will have reference to (a) the native races of America, their origin, geographical distribution, history, physical and mental characteristics, languages, civilization, mythology, religions, and habits; (b) the indigenous monuments and archæology of America; (c) the history of the discovery and European occupancy of the New World. There will be social entertainments of the kind customary in connection with similar gatherings; and it is probable that at the close of the session an excursion to Lake St. John, including a visit to a camp of Montagnais Indians of the region, will be organized. Among the promoters of the coming Congress are Prof. A. F. Chamberlain, of Worcester, Mass., and Dr. Franz Boas, New York. In accordance with previous usage, the accepted languages will be French, English, German, Spanish, and Italian.

The International Congress for the Historical Sciences, which was to meet during the present year, will not convene until the summer of 1908, and then in Berlin. The programme is to be sent out during the coming year. This will be the fourth united convention of the representatives of historical research from all civilized lands. Its significance is signalized by the fact that the committee of arrangements consists of three of the most famous specialists in this line in Germany, namely, Dr. Reinhold Koser, the director-in-chief of the Prussian Archives, and the two famous Berlin University professors, Ulrich von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff and Eduard Meyer.

A mining engineer writes to us from Nevada: "In your review of Prof. Shaler's 'Man and Earth,' you state that the accessible coal deposits of the world have a life of 300 years. This is an absurdly low estimate. The coal fields of eastern Shansi are soon to be accessible through the railways of the Pekin Syndicate. This is an anthracite coalfield containing some 600,000,000,000 tons of coal, or enough for the world's supply for 700 years. In western Shansi there is a larger field of bituminous coal, and there are enormous deposits in Honan and in Kansu, all of which will be accessible long before the 300 years has passed."

—The latest volume of the Transactions of the Royal Historical Society contains a paper upon "English Ships in the Reign of James I.," communicated by Mr. R. G. Marsden, whose two volumes of 'Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty' were published by the Selden Society. The paper in question should be noted by those who are in quest of details as to the early colonial period of American history, for, hidden away among the seldom examined records of the High Court of Admiralty, are statements made by persons who actually visited the colonies in their infantile state. No doubt, to any but enthusiasts, it would be dry work to pore over such documents as "Libels, Examinations, Acts, Warrant Books, Miscellanea, Oyer and Terminer, Interrogatories, and Exemplifications," which form the records of court. But sometimes one is well rewarded. Thus, in connection with the *Discovery* (or *Hopewell*, or *Good Hope*), which was Hudson's ship on his last voyage, and in which Baffin also sailed, Mr. Marsden tells us that particulars of the trial, on January 25, 1611, of some of the crew for the murder of Hudson, will be found in *Examination* 42. Mr. Marsden has discovered no documents relating to the voyage of the Pilgrims, in 1620, in the *Mayflower*, but he gives several references to documents containing facts about that vessel from 1609 to 1624, or perhaps 1626. He has encountered many references to the *Susan Constant*, or *Susan Constance;* but, sad to say, he gives no details. Was not this the flagship of Capt. Newport's little squadron, which, in 1607, carried the first settlers to Jamestown? There are papers telling of a charge of piracy against the *Trial*, bound to Virginia, in 1607; of the *Gift of God* sent forth by Sir John Popham to Virginia, in 1608; and the *Garland*, lost at Bermuda on a voy-

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age to Virginia, in 1619. In this last case, among the papers are the commission to William Wye, her master, and a letter from the Virginia Company to Sir George Yardley. A claim for wages by two of the crew of the *Little James*, which relieved the Plymouth Colony in 1623, discloses a letter of William Bradford and Isaac Allerton. Of the *Destiny*, Sir Walter Raleigh's ship on his last voyage to Gulana, the records of the High Court of Admiralty have much to tell. Mr. Marsden notes that this vessel was taken into the Royal Navy, when her name was changed to the *Converse* or *Convertine*.

—'Americans of 1776' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is an elaboration of the lectures delivered by Mr. James Schouler at the Johns Hopkins University during the years 1901-1905. They form a study of the life and manners of the Revolutionary period, based on an examination of newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, letters, and diaries. Crime and Disorders; Births, Marriages, and Deaths; The Casualties of Life; Dress and Diet; Philanthropy and Disease; Religious Influences, are some of the chapter-titles. Detailed facts in abundance are presented, loosely strung together by rather obvious comments. The separate chapters bear little or no necessary relation to each other, each one being measurably complete in itself. The author, indeed, makes no claim to originality of treatment, and if there is from first to last no observation of a profound or illuminating character, we have observed few misleading or erroneous statements. If the colonial assemblies vied with each other in "voting heroic statues to George III." (p. 7) for the repeal of the Stamp Act, they were less ready to indemnify the sufferers from the Stamp-Act riots. The laws for the relief of debtors were due quite as much, perhaps, to the financial stringency resulting from the Sugar Act as to growing humanitarianism (p. 30). There was in New York, after all, only one estate forty miles square (p. 49), and that one was not originally granted by the English Crown. The tavern where Washington said farewell to his officers is better known as Fraunces', the name which it bore at that time (p. 78). The self-denial of the colonists in refusing to drink the East India Company's tea was not excessive, since there remained the Holland tea (p. 100). The New York liberty pole was cut down by the soldiers in January, 1770 (p. 266). If New York "broke down" in 1770 under the burden of the Non-Importation agreement, it was precisely because New York was the only colony which enforced that agreement with sufficient strictness to make it a burden (p. 101).

—'Mary Stuart,' by Florence A. Maccunn (Dutton), is a book which comes into the world without a second title, without a preface, and without any need of an apology. Moreover, in making this statement, we speak as a rather jaded reader of Marian literature. What we have enjoyed specially in the volume is its directness. Among a host of technical and controversial monographs, it stands out a simple, lively narrative of the remarkable adventures through which Mary Stuart passed. No amount of argument about the Kirk o' Field or the Casket Letters can excite the same interest which is elicited by a well-told story of the authentic incidents in that strange career. Most writers on this subject are so preoccupied with their own theories upon doubtful points that they make their books mere pieces of dialectic. The first volume of Dr. Hay Fleming's *magnum opus* has recently been styled by another expert in Marian questions "a notable example of biographic spadework." Doubtless spadework must be done, but at times it is really delightful to turn from researches conducted by the historical detective to the broad facts about which there can be no disputes. Miss Maccunn believes that Mary was in the plot against Darnley, sees clearly enough how infatuated she became over Bothwell, and does not forget her lack of humanity towards Bothwell's wife. Of the three main strains which met in her—Stuart, Guise, and Tudor—the last is held responsible for the sensual impulse which once at least got the better of her clearheadedness, her conscience, and her abundant good nature. But when all the worst has been said, there remain for our author the natural kindliness of disposition, the queenly instincts, the unstinted generosity, the charm of manner, and the willingness to sacrifice herself though she sacrificed others. The essential crudeness and vulgarity of Bothwell, the shiftiness of the Lord James, the cowardice of Maitland, and the rapacity of the ordinary Scottish noble are always the foils which serve to place Mary's finer qualities in high relief, and the contrast is cleverly indicated in these pages. Knox and the Presbyterian conscience come in for a certain amount of attention, and while the *dramatis personæ* belong to court circles rather than to the bourgeoisie, Miss Maccunn reaches the chief fact in the history of the reign when she says: "The bulk of serious burghers and their wives listened week after week with sour satisfaction to Knox denouncing from the pulpit her 'dancing and skipping' and the 'stinking pride' of her 'targetted tails.' For Mary, full of ambitions—Spanish marriage, English succession—or possessed by her more fatal dream of love and happiness, these sober-suited people hardly existed; yet they and their crude, sincere instinct of conduct proved to be the unregarded stone which, falling on her, was to grind her to powder."

—M. George Moreau, whose verdict on America ('L'Envers des États-Unis') comes to us from the Plon-Nourrit press of Paris, sees but a gloomy outlook for the future. Not believing in the settlement of so important a question "entre la poire et le fromage," as the manner of some is, he has taken time and pains to go to the bottom of things—deeply enough, in fact, to unearth some matters of which we on this side were ignorant, such as the arrival of William Penn on the *Mayflower*, the invincible horror for colored people in the Northern States, and the favorable eye with which the Southern districts regard marriage between whites and mulattoes, thus opening the door to an amalgamation which threatens a dangerous weakening of American energy. Then, too, a very great majority of American women are addicted to excessive indulgence in alcoholic drinks. This is all bad enough, but we are essentially a nation of mere bluffers anyhow, materially successful so far, it must be admitted, but desperately ignorant and hypocritically feigning an interest in art, music, and all that sort of stuff, merely to keep up appearances. But the handwriting is already on the wall. With the evils always inherent in increasing density of population, added to degeneracy from race mixture and alcoholism, will come strifes and bickerings over conflicting local interests; large States here and there will gather their smaller neighbors around them in warring groups, the tie that now binds will be broken, and Europe (has M. Moreau been reading Tacitus?) will look on with a sigh of relief as her enemy works its own ruin. Have we possibly a key to our critic's almost unbroken pessimism in his statement that "en général la cuisine est détestable"? A man with a pain to nurse on that score must have exceptional self-control to take an accurate and wholesome view of other things. Any well-informed American could have pointed out to him many very serious faults which he seems not to have noticed at all, as well as a few items on the opposite side of the balance-sheet.

—From the same press we get a healthful corrective to M. Moreau's acidity in 'Impressions d'une Française en Amérique,' by Mlle. Thérèse Vianzone, who spent some months on this side the water in 1903-1904, lecturing before various schools and other organizations and studying certain phases of American life, chiefly in our large cities east of the Alleghanies, with a short trip to Chicago and a few weeks in Toronto and Montreal. Mlle. Vianzone's previous acquaintance, gained in European diplomatic circles largely, was such as to bring her here with exceptional opportunities for seeing certain of the more attractive features of American life. Naturally, this gave a more roseate color to her visit than would otherwise have been possible. She is too wise to take a partial view as sufficient basis for dogmatic judgment upon the whole, however, and that is just the difference between her and M. Moreau. Her general impression is that a nation having in itself such powerful agencies for good as she discovered, has no adquate reason to despair of its future. She goes into scores of American homes, and finds there mothers thoroughly devoted to their children, guiding them intelligently into the development of responsible and self-respecting manhood and womanhood; she meets everywhere young women of great wealth and high social position forgetful of self and devoting means and energy unostentatiously to the good of others. Is not the frivolous, characterless woman here too? Yes, but not as a characteristic American institution. Europe knew her before America was discovered, and knows her still. The separation of colored people from white, which the Frenchwoman saw on a trip to Mount Vernon by car, calls forth the cry, "O égalité!" The day before, she had found herself the only white person in a car well filled with negroes, and had felt no concern whatever. At Boston she had the privilege of forming a close acquaintance with Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, and was very deeply impressed with the personality and achievements of the veteran reformer. A fine photograph of Mrs. Howe graces the book, with others of Cardinal Gibbons, Secretary Bonaparte,

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the President and his family, and Sir Wilfrid Laurier. The orthography of English words and phrases used in quotation has given some trouble (brikchurch, Harward, the for hundred, John Hopkins, Peobody, etc.), and the service of some proofreader capable of correcting such blemishes should have been called in.

SOUTHERN HISTORY IN TWO STYLES.

The Brothers' War. By John C. Reed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1905.

Civil War and Reconstruction in Alabama. By Walter L. Fleming, Ph.D. The Columbia University Press (Macmillan Co.). 1905.

"Bebra," quoth the Quaker, "everybody is queer except thee and me, and thee is a little queer." The ante-bellum South seems less queer to us since reading 'The Brothers' War,' in which Mr. Reed expounds some wise theories and makes many philosophical observations. His antecedents add interest to his opinions. From incidental remarks in the book we learn that he was born about seventy years ago in northeastern Georgia, the son of a Presbyterian clergyman who owned less than a score of slaves; that he was educated at Princeton, and had been practising law a few years when Lincoln was elected; that then secession seemed to him to be the only patriotic course, and that he engaged in the first battle of Bull Run, and continued to hazard everything until he surrendered at Appomattox. Since 1865 he has pursued his profession, first in his native county, and latterly in Atlanta. Hence he knew the old order of things, and works and writes as a part of the energetic new South. It would be less than fair not to add, that he has rid his mind of all cant, and has at least endeavored to slough off all prejudices. Being so open-minded himself, he is sure to be a mind-opener to others.

His main thesis is that economic interest, not principle or derivation, made two distinct and antagonistic peoples in the United States. Originally the North and the South were "homogeneous in origin, race, language, religion, institutions and customs." His argument advances along that well-known main-travelled road of the "economic contrast." The "nationalization of the South" began, he says, before the formation of the Federal Constitution, and could have been arrested in but one way, "by the extirpation of slavery, which was both its germ and active principle." After the cotton gin, the "cotton States" soon came into existence; and after they "had really developed their industry, the Southern Confederacy was inevitable." In this nationalization "the doctrine of State sovereignty was really nothing but its instrument, nurse, and organ" (p. 59). Each side grasped the weapon that promised to be most serviceable. Strict construction and State sovereignty suited the South most of the time, just as the opposites were more useful to the North. Our author might have added with equal truth that the leaders again and again exchanged positions and weapons, for aggressive strategy or the needs of defence. "The economic interest of the South in slavery was so great that it commanded her to sacrifice all the advantages of the Union to preserve slavery, if it should be necessary." The favorable was right, morally and politically, and *vice versa*. If you dispute it, kindly explain how "all the churches, accepting the same Christ and worshipping the same God, were at last divided; the Northern churches impugning and the Southern churches defending slavery" (p. 86). Long before 1860, property in slaves had "supplanted or made dependent on itself all other property, and became the solitary foundation of every kind of production and mode of making a living." The returns from slave labor depended on soil, crops, and management, and varied from a loss to a great profit; but what might easily be made "the greatest profit of all was what the master thought of and talked of all the day long—the natural increase of his slaves, as he called it. His negroes were far more to him than his land. . . . Quickly exhausting his newly cleared fields, he looked elsewhere for other virgin soil to wear out" (p. 49). So great was the increase in the value and number of slaves that slavery might still be highly profitable although the soil was poor and its cultivation slovenly. If the slaves raised enough to supply the bare necessaries for their master and themselves, there was often a good percentage of gain even in the annual compound of principal and interest, if no slaves were sold. Elsewhere the author likens the ease and advantage of slave-breeding to a self-managing and remunerative orchard, where "the trees plant and tend themselves, gather and store the fruit, set out other orchards, and do all else necessary to care for the property and keep it steadily growing" (p. 48). "Really the leading industry of the South was slave rearing. The profit was in keeping the slaves healthy and rapidly multiplying" (p. 156).

Lest any one should wonder how the Southerners could believe that they were champions of liberty when slaveholding was their great concern, he reminds us that their idol was Greece, both slaveholding and liberty-loving. Nor were they incredibly dull and obtuse in not abandoning slavery when they saw that the economic, political, moral, and intellectual forces of the world were against them; they acted only as human beings always act. "Note how people dwell near overflowing rivers, or a sea of tidal waves, or live volcanoes, or in earthquake districts, or near a tribe of scalping redskins, where they, their wives and children, keep merry as the day is long until the calamity comes." In fact, Mr. Reed never knew but one man who showed by his actions that he foresaw the early fall of slavery (p. 43). He might have said with equal truth that nineteen persons out of twenty, especially among the educated and rich, were absolutely confident that all the rest of the world was wrong, and slavery was a great civilizer and the only true solution of the conflict between labor and capital. Moreover, he gives a living illustration of old illusions and of how tenaciously intelligent persons may adhere to them, by arguing at great length that slavery was a blessing to the negro, and that since emancipation the negro has depreciated.

Mr. Reed discusses different periods and influences in the evolution of the conflict, in chapters on such subjects as "Root-and-branch Abolitionists and Fire-eaters," Calhoun, Webster, 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' Toombs, and Davis. Webster and Calhoun are, of course, given their usual rôles. If Calhoun did not really love the Union, he at least loved to think he loved it. Some of Mr. Reed's opinions regarding Calhoun seem very extravagant. He is doubtless correct in saying that Calhoun chose the absurd ground of nullification because he foresaw that "secession meant internecine war between the sections"; and, after nullification had been both successful and peaceful, he strove to "exalt peaceful nullification above bloody secession" (p. 125). While he lived, he nominally cherished the Union, and slavery continued mainly on the defensive. Toombs was cast in a totally different mould. To his logical and clear mind, slavery and free labor were obviously mortal enemies, and hatred of the Union was already beginning to burn in his heart when, in June, 1850, he proclaimed in the House, that, unless the Territories should be divided or slavery should be allowed to go into all of them, "I will, if I can, bring my children and my constituents to the altar of liberty [!], and, like Hamilcar, swear them to eternal hostility to your foul dominion." That was typical of the temper of the coming period. So when the South took the aggressive, and, by the Ostend manifesto, prepared to obtain more slave territory abroad, as by the Kansas-Nebraska act more was opened up to her at home, Toombs became, in many respects, the truest representative of the Southern cause.

Mr. Reed, long an intimate acquaintance of Toombs and often his colleague or opponent in court, probably would not accept this characterization, but compares him with Webster as a lawyer, and claims that he was the successor of Calhoun and the great Southern leader for about a decade before the Confederacy was founded; he even argues that if Toombs instead of Davis had been chosen President, the result might have been more favorable. The author's frankness in admitting Toombs's drunkenness, unbridled temper and boasting conceit is characteristic. Undoubtedly, Toombs had rare natural talent, some great qualities as a lawyer, political debater, and Senator. He possessed a few statesmanlike traits. Moreover, his defences of slavery were the most effective, his logic was the most ruthless, his audacity the most daring. He could not imagine himself or his cause being wrong, or that any civilization was equal to one founded on servitude. To reject his demands or to check the growth of slavery was to subject the South to "foul dominion." Until statesmanship shall be defined as the art of precipitating revolution and acting with violent indiscretion, Toombs is not likely to rise above the rank of a powerful but unsuccessful revolutionist. Therefore, that Davis instead of Toombs was chosen for the head of the Confederacy, showed that the Montgomery convention knew its right hand from its left. But Mr. Reed, seeing that Toombs's career inspires less and less respect, has reëxamined and described it in the hope of making it appear that of a true statesman. Our zealous searcher for four-

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leafed clover goes so far afield that he entirely loses his bearings, and we are solemnly assured (on evidence that would have convinced Colonel Sellers or Cy Prime) that if Toombs had been President, he would early have rushed cotton to Europe, for which ships could have been obtained, which, in turn would have broken the blockade, etc., etc. (pp. 286-92). "King Cotton"—so soon forgotten! In 1860 and 1861 every Southerner believed that cotton was so absolute and immediate a necessity to Great Britain and France that, long before the blockade could injure the Confederacy, those nations would have to come and break that blockade, or be thrown into commercial panic that would threaten millions with starvation. Late in 1862, after the blockade became effective and the foreign ships came not, the changeful Stephens and other impractical critics discovered that *Davis* had made an awful mistake!

We pass over other erroneous assumptions; some serious, but common, misconceptions about the Abolitionists; many blemishes in style; and here and there some special pleading. There also seems to us to be much more sentiment and jugglery about "equally patriotic," "brothers all," "glad we fought" and "glad we lost," or similar phrases, than is called for by the author's arguments that slavery was the cause of the war, and that slavery was a curse to the white population. But perhaps such a pill would not be taken if there were less sugar-coating. "He and I can agree about everything on earth until we get to our sable population, I do believe," said Toombs of his hard-hitting opponent, Senator Wade; and so, with few exceptions, we can say of Mr. Reed.

Professor Fleming and his 'Civil War and Reconstruction in Alabama' are strikingly different from the author and the book just noticed. Presumably Professor Fleming was not born until after the end of Reconstruction; but, before he came North to study history, he had the advantage of living among the survivors of the periods and events which he describes. His opportunities have therefore been exceptionally good. An older and experienced writer would be expected to use them so as to produce a picturesque, philosophical, scholarly, and unbiassed history, and especially one giving clear representations of all the controlling impulses working in the different races, classes, and conditions of men. So much should not be looked for in a mere beginner; but a professor of history and a Ph.D., who has had such opportunities and presents the results in more than 800 large octavo pages, has serious responsibilities. In any case, two qualities are prerequisites to a large degree of success—scholarly industry and impartiality. Of industry, Professor Fleming has given an exhibition that is truly phenomenal. No possible field of information which he has desired to acquire seems to have been left unexplored.

The scope of his work is far-reaching; it extends to almost every important phase in Alabama life, from about 1860 to the end of Reconstruction. Even an abbreviation of the subjects of leading chapters will show this: Sectional Controversy, Secession, Military and Political Events, Economic and Social Conditions, Social and Economic Disorder, Confiscation and Cotton Tax, Temper of the People, Provisional Administrations, Military Government, Wards of the Nation, Military Government Under the Reconstruction Acts, Campaign of 1867, "Reconstruction" Convention, "Reconstruction" Completed, Union League, Taxation and Public Debt, Railroad Legislation and Frauds, Reconstruction in Schools and Churches, Ku-Klux, Industrial Reorganization, Political and Social Conditions in Reconstruction, The Overthrow of Reconstruction. The subdivisions would still more clearly show that there is here no room for criticism. It is when we come to consider the construction of the narrative that imperfections begin to appear. Many of Professor Fleming's chapters must be called monographic, if not monographs, for they pursue a special subject through a certain period, perhaps several years. Then another subject is taken up, and the same years are gone over again. Each of the monographic chapters is stuffed with superfluous facts and details; and, as most of the subjects are kindred as well as synchronous, the repetitions are innumerable and fatiguing. This method makes it necessary to separate causes and effects when, as is often the case, they lie in different fields. Most of all in a time of wild disorder like that of Reconstruction, when scores of forces are acting and reacting, it is the duty of an historian to keep the results within sight of the causes. Shall he, then, write of all things at once? No. But he should so write of the things that are related as to be able to see and to describe the relationship. How is that possible? It is quite impossible, unless one has what in a figure may be called a good historical digestion—the capacity to transform raw facts into history. Facts and history are almost as different as are a cow's feed and her milk. With such a method as Mr. Fleming has adopted, a fluent narrative is quite impossible. The style seldom either rises much above a respectable commonplace or (what is considerable praise for a work of this abnormal size) falls much below it. Professor Fleming seems to be untrained in the art of expression, or even in the art of arranging facts so that they shall be interesting if not picturesque; but now and then we see evidence that, if he should cultivate a taste for quality and care less for quantity, he might greatly improve.

The author's point of view and the purely intellectual part of his task are of the greatest moment. Olmsted once made some remark to an ante-bellum planter, who answered to this effect: "I don't know, but if it's anything unfriendly to slavery I know it isn't true." That was the state of mind. Slavery had been so violently attacked by all the rest of the world that Southerners felt compelled to defend as much of it as possible, and studiously to conceal, ignore, or misrepresent the rest. A part of the method was continually to say and to believe that no one but a Southerner knew or could learn anything about the South, especially slavery—unless his opinion should be wholly favorable, and then it was conclusive. It became second nature to champion and glorify everything Southern, and the re-echo of this glorification is the tradition that has come down to the present generation. Incredible as it may seem, this tradition is the steel frame of a large part of the structure Professor Fleming has built.

We said that our author had explored every available field where there was information that he desired to acquire. Instinctively feeling that everything Southern was wholly right, he often instinctively avoided or failed to perceive unfavorable evidence. However, sooner or later the inveterate fact-hunter must discover some unwelcome phenomena—*quasi*-evidence or troublesome evidence. During the last four years before the civil war a wild craze for reopening the African slave-trade swept over the South below the border slave States and North Carolina. It was prompted by both economic and political interests, and perfectly illustrates Mr. Reed's theory of the economic interest controlling ideas of morals. With the destruction of slavery the South soon acquired the normal view that the African slave-trade was horrible. Therefore, tradition makes no mention of that midsummer madness. So, when Professor Fleming finds Yancey advocating the repeal of the prohibition of that trade, he is naturally a little puzzled. He consults the recollection of Judge Roger A. Pryor—who disagreed with Yancey at the Montgomery Commercial Convention of 1858—and informs us that "no one understood that there was any desire on the part of Yancey and others to reopen the slave trade." That suffices to do away with the *quasi*-evidence; for the talk of reopening the slave-trade was only Yancey's little subterfuge to split the Democratic party as a means of hastening secession. The late, most amiable Dr. Curry wrote two books largely to demonstrate that the causes of the civil war were wholly matters of constitutional interpretation, and that slavery had nothing to do with it. Subsequently he discovered, to his utter amazement, that the speeches he had made advocating secession gave not the slightest hint of any cause except slavery. If the venerable judge and our author will turn to the reports of that Commercial Convention (24 *DeBow's Review*, 473ff., 579ff.) and, along with the other records, will read the speech by one Roger A. Pryor, then of Virginia, they will learn something important for them to know.

The troublesome evidence conflicting with tradition is eliminated more summarily. After the manner of criminal lawyers, Professor Fleming boldly attempts to throw out such evidence by insisting that the witness is either *non compos* or a disreputable character, and sometimes both. Thus, the non-slaveholder hated the negroes, and consequently dreaded emancipation more than the slaveholders; therefore, they could not honestly have been Unionists. (Don't suggest that it was possible both to fear negro equality and also to believe that Lincoln's administration would not interfere with slavery.) Hence, for secession, directly or indirectly, there was practical unanimity, and all went into the cause. When, as the war advanced, many show signs of opposition, desert, etc., our author so covers them with one or more of several epithets that their criticisms are discredited, and every genuine traditionist will forever consider them outlawed and disreputable. So the traditional perfection of the secessionists and Confederates is demonstrated; and the

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presumption of this perfection becomes cumulative as we advance towards reconstruction. The "surrender" meant "quits"; the South expected to forget and forgive, and the best portion (by which understand all) of the population, was in favor of educating the negro, and even giving him the right to vote. (Evidence and details are strangely meagre on these points.) Hence, if the South had been left to herself, peace and prosperity would soon have returned even to Warsaw. All Southern witnesses to the contrary straightway become "scalawags," or worse. Likewise, every Northerner or foreigner found in the South during or after the war, and in disagreement with the perfectionists then or the traditionists now, is *prima facie* both *non compos* and disreputable, first, because only Southerners can understand the negro and the South, and, secondly, because they were opposing and thwarting the only true Reconstruction, which the perfectionists would otherwise have carried out. Gen. Carl Schurz is put down as doubly *non compos*, because, in addition to being a Northerner, he was also of German birth, and doubly disreputable, because, when in the South in 1865, he obtained some of his information from Northern officers stationed there (p. 312). Mr. Godkin, on account of his ante-bellum and post-bellum travels in the South, has heretofore been counted a high authority. But he was not, we are told, above getting his information from loafers on the street corners and in the bar-rooms. Of course every Northerner that settled in Alabama is loathed as a carpet-bagger. Excepting only Gen. Swayne, who is occasionally allowed a few moments of respectability, so that he may testify on the Southern side, we are unable to recall another instance where any one of all the thousands of civil or military officers, teachers, or preachers, of any degree, is not spoken of with something like contempt, on the assumption that he or she (although in many instances engaged in highly Christian and philanthropic work) was an absurd, if not also a base creature. Just the reverse is true of all persons and things our author considers typically Southern. Any Ku-Klux is better than any Northern teacher, missionary, or preacher. A more complete separation of the sheep from the goats, or, rather, the angels from the devils, it would be difficult to find in any 800-page history. And yet there are persons who deny that history is a science! Professor Fleming's method, for scientific precision and efficiency, could hardly be surpassed, even by a guillotine.

Nevertheless, we consider this volume a very important contribution to the history of its period. Several chapters or sections, on account of their subjects, are entirely free from the objectionable features that have been noticed. The best of these is the one about economic and social conditions during the war. Some others are excellent in most respects. Even where the author has been the victim of his own bias, his references and collections of facts, good or bad, are so extensive that this volume will be of immense value *pour servir*.

WILKINS'S MRS. FITZHERBERT.

Mrs. Fitzherbert and George IV. By W. H. Wilkins. Longmans. 1905.

The story of the amours of George IV. and Maria Fitzherbert is interesting if not edifying. At the age of twenty-one, the eldest son of George III. fell very desperately in love with this young widow, six years his senior. She was well born and bred, spotless in reputation, sweet, and equable in temperament, and, according to eighteenth-century canons, beautiful. The sentiments of the Prince were not reciprocated. The lady did her best to escape from her suitor, and this led to the beginning of a series of unusual and dramatic incidents. George was, to put it plainly, a very dreadful person, probably not quite so bad as Thackeray painted him, but certainly not so amiable and virtuous as Mr. Wilkins would have us believe. He could, to be sure, bow better than any man in Europe, and make himself popular with kitchen maids, but alongside of that he was a profligate and drunkard, with a bad heart, a lying tongue, and a deficient sense of honor. The best defence that can be offered for him (one that Mr. Wilkins has not put in) is that he had inherited a strain of his father's lunacy. His lies were often carried to the point of delusion—for instance, his famous one that he had taken part in the battle of Waterloo. This idea, that he had been at Waterloo, became so rooted in his mind that he appealed to Wellington to confirm it, which provoked the Duke's dry retort: "I have heard your Majesty say so before." Such was the man who had fallen very genuinely in love with a lady far too good for him, and who would have none of him.

In despair at his rebuffs, George feigned an attempt to commit suicide. Mrs. Fitzherbert was dragged to his bedside, and, at the sight of the royal blood, nearly fainted. A ring was forced on her hand, and she was declared bound to the Prince. This desperate comedy failed to achieve George's purpose, for Mrs. Fitzherbert, to escape him, now fled to the Continent. Unable to see her, he bombarded her with letters (one of them was of no less than 37 pages), and, under this heavy fire, she began to weaken. Finally she surrendered, but on honorable terms. She consented to marry the Prince. The marriage took place under conditions of the greatest secrecy—of such secrecy, in fact, that it has never been strictly authenticated until the publication of Mr. Wilkins's book. The reason for secrecy was twofold. Under the law as it then stood, George could not contract a marriage without his father's consent, and to ask for it in this case would have been hopeless. Again, under the Act of Settlement, a marriage with a Catholic excluded the Prince so marrying from the succession, and Mrs. Fitzherbert was a Catholic. So the marriage had to be kept secret. It was valid in the eyes of the Church of Rome and of the Church of England, but by the civil law it was invalid, and politically, it was folly.

The apparently wedded life that the Prince now began to lead with this well-known Catholic lady raised a Protestant storm about his ears. Rumors of the marriage got about. George was in financial distress; would the King and Pitt relieve his wants? His friends worked for him in the House of Commons, and, to win the day, Fox rose and declared, on the express authority of the Prince, that there was no foundation for the report that he was married. This is one of the few points at which serious exception may be taken to Mr. Wilkins's statements. He tries to mitigate the circumstances by exaggerating the importance of the letter of the 11th of December, 1785; there may have been later letters that have disappeared, or unrecorded conversations. There can be no reasonable doubt that Fox knew the facts, that he lied deliberately, and that he did so by arrangement with the Prince. It was a great shock to Mrs. Fitzherbert, and Fox she never forgave.

There was a momentary estrangement over this public affront, but with this exception the Prince and Mrs. Fitzherbert lived happily together from 1785 to 1794, mostly at Brighton. In the latter year, without any warning, he suddenly threw her over, having been paid by the King to marry the Princess Caroline of Brunswick. George did not take kindly to his new wife, and was soon back at the feet of his old love, but it was not till 1799 that she reluctantly consented to resume their former relations. Once more they lived together, until the summer of 1809, when the Prince turned definitely away from his amiable and long-suffering wife for younger women, Lady Hertford and later Lady Coningham. During the Regency, and after he ascended the throne as George IV., she rarely met him, and, when she did see him at some social function, treated him with cool disdain. But when, in 1830, he lay on his deathbed at Windsor, she wrote in affectionate and dutiful words to ask that she might soothe his last hours. The letter came too late, but the King had charged the Duke of Wellington that he should be buried with a locket around his neck; and when, after his death, the Duke looked at the locket, he found that it contained a portrait of Mrs. Fitzherbert. William IV. ordered his brother's widow to assume the royal livery and wear mourning, and all the royal family treated her with marked consideration and respect. She survived her husband some years, dying in 1837 at the age of eighty, leaving, apparently, no descendants.

Mr. Wilkins's book is so good that his readers ought to know that the author, who makes no allusion to the fact, had to produce it under conditions of physical disablement so distressing as nearly to disarm the critic, and which have since ended in death. At the same time it is a duty to point out its failings. Firstly, it must be said that Mr. Wilkins, though a conscientious searcher and worker, is here rather an apologist than an historian; he is so anxious that the good points of George IV. shall not escape us, that he finally leaves only a very unsatisfactory outline. Again, he is not a psychologist, and his Mrs. Fitzherbert is little more than a lay figure. The forces that got her into the marriage were evidently very mixed and very subtle; to say that she "loved" the Prince might do for a fairy tale, but is hardly adequate here. Mr. Wilkins rather misses the significance of the religious factor in Mrs. Fitzherbert's life, especially at the crises; these suggest

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very decidedly a strong hand behind her; was it the Rev. William Nassau? Another point that is rather obscured is her love of social pleasures; at eighty she was still dining out, at seventy-eight she was thinking of taking singing lessons.

A few slips and mistakes here and there may also be noted. *Plombiers* is given in several places for Plombières. Fox's argument (p. 53) as to the possibility of Mrs. Fitzherbert being Queen is perfectly sound, and does not require the note appended, for, writing as he did before the marriage (unless this was an antedated letter, which Mr. Wilkins does not suggest), he was bound to consider it possible that she might abjure Catholicism and marry as a member of the Church of England. For *style* of Epicurus (p. 108) one would expect sty. In Chapters X. and XI. it would appear that Mr. Wilkins misreads the whole situation; it is safe to assume both the Prince and Fox capable of direct lying, while it is not safe to assume that the date of Fox's letter is genuine. In the matter of the lunacy of George III. (p. 164), it was clearly the object of Pitt to gain time, but the delay caused by the examination of the doctors by the House of Commons proceeded not from Pitt, but from Fox. Willis was more than an "ex-clergyman"; he was also a doctor of medicine. The terms on which the Prince was offered the Regency (p. 167) are not fairly stated; when the bill was in the Commons, Pitt proposed that all restrictions should cease after three years. It was not in August, 1815, that the Princess Caroline left England (p. 331), but in 1814. George Dawson, who married Mrs. Fitzherbert's ward (p. 359), was not the second, but the third son of the Earl of Portarlington.

The Life and Letters of Peter Ilich Tchaikovsky. By Modiste Tchaikovsky. John Lane Co.

A few years ago the Russian publisher Jurgenson issued Modiste Tchaikovsky's Life and Letters of his brother, the famous composer, in three volumes. A German version, by Paul Juon, promptly followed; the first volume of this was reviewed at length in these columns. Juon reduced the three Russian volumes to two in German, and now we have an English version by Rosa Newmarch in one volume. While agreeing with Carlyle that "mankind takes an unspeakable delight in biography," Mrs. Newmarch wisely recognized the necessity of further condensation; and so, in place of the 2,000 pages of the original edition, we have 782 of the English version. This is probably quite as much as even the most ardent admirers of the great Russian will care to read about him when they purchase this volume. After perusal, to be sure, many of them will wish there was more, for a book of more absorbing human as well as artistic interest has seldom been written.

In the earlier chapters there is a considerable amount of biographic narrative; but, as the volume progresses, nearly the whole story is told in the letters of Tchaikovsky, of which there were about 3,000 to choose from, and which are often as *intimes* and unreserved as Wagner's letters to Liszt and to Frau Wesendonck. This is true, especially, of those addressed to his benefactress, Frau von Meck, who, in granting him a liberal annuity on the understanding that they were never to meet personally, was in all probability actuated in part by the desire thus to draw him out in his letters. He is constantly answering her questions regarding his plans, his method of work, his opinions on music and musicians; and thus the world owes her a large debt of gratitude. For thirteen years their correspondence lasted. Then, like a bolt from the sky, came her announcement that she could no longer pay him the 6,000 rubles yearly, because of her pecuniary embarrassment. "Do not forget," she added, "and think of me sometimes." What hurt Tchaikovsky most was the implication of these words that he would now cease writing to her. "I may say without exaggeration that you saved me," he replied. "I should certainly have gone out of my mind and come to an untimely end but for your friendship and sympathy, as well as for the material assistance (then my safety anchor) which enabled me to rally my forces and take up once more my chosen vocation." To his great distress, Mme. von Meck never replied. Her financial difficulties blew over, and the composer concluded that she had simply wanted to get rid of him. As a matter of fact, her strange conduct was the consequence of a terrible nervous disease, to which she succumbed a few months after Tchaikovsky's death.

Thanks to the success of two of his operas, "Eugene Onegin" and "Pique Dame," the composer was not in the least incommoded by the loss of his annuity; but it was only three years before his end that he thus secured financial independence. Russian music lovers had been slow to acknowledge his genius, and foreigners slower still, with the exception of Hans von Bülow and a few other leaders of thought. It seemed like the irony of fate that success should come to him principally through his operas, for he rather looked down on the opera and felt that he was not at his best in this field. But it was only in Russia that his operas became popular; elsewhere they failed, for the same reason as Rubinstein's: both these Russians disliked Wagner and refused to learn from him. Tchaikovsky had little use for Wagner after "Lohengrin." "The Nibelung's Ring" at Bayreuth and "Tristan" in Berlin bored him—almost as much as Brahms bored him. Nor did he care for Bach or Beethoven; his sympathies were narrow; Mozart was his idol, and he admired his French contemporaries. He felt uneasy about his own works. "I have not attained to the rank of a master," he wrote four years before his death.

Such utterances, to be sure, were largely inspired by his moods, which were as variable and as extreme as Wagner's. Emotionalism is the keynote of his letters, as of his musical works. "To make the fair sex faint is the highest triumph to which any composer can attain," was one of his mottoes. "An hour ago I was in the millet field which lies beyond the garden, and so great was my ecstasy that I fell upon my knees and thanked God for the profound joy I experienced." Paintings used to bore him; but the time came when he could write: "To-day I went on foot to the Vatican and sat a long while in the Sistine Chapel. Here a miracle was worked. I felt—almost for the first time in my life—an artistic ecstasy for painting." Massenet's oratorio, "Mary Magdalen," moved him deeply. "I was so touched by the emotionalism of the music in which Massenet has reflected the eternal compassion of Christ that I shed many tears. Wonderful tears!" And, to give only one more sample, from the same letter:

"I took up 'Les Travailleurs de la Mer'; I read, and read, and grew more and more irritated by his grimaces and buffoonery. Finally, after a whole series of short, unmeaning phrases, consisting of exclamations, antitheses, and asterisks, I lost my temper, spat upon the book, tore it to pieces, stamped upon it, and wound up by throwing it out of the window. From that moment I cannot bear the mention of Victor Hugo!"

Memoirs of Archbishop Temple. By Seven Friends. Edited by E. G. Sandford, Archdeacon of Exeter. With photogravures and other illustrations. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1906.

These volumes set forth in full detail a career far more familiar to Englishmen than to Americans. Born in the Ionian Islands in 1821 and educated at Oxford, Dr. Temple was a fellow and tutor of Balliol 1842-48, was employed in the Education Office 1848-57, became headmaster of Rugby 1857, Bishop of Exeter 1869, Bishop of London 1885, Archbishop of Canterbury 1896, and died in 1902. In all these posts his ability, activity, and success were notable. His official acts, etc., arrayed in order by several of his associates, and largely supplemented by the editor, fill near 1,400 octavo pages. This wilderness of facts can hardly create in Americans an interest hitherto lacking, if one may judge by the few dry lines vouchsafed to Dr. Temple in our books of reference; yet the man was worth remembering. Works of edification, however valuable, offer to history matter less attractive than ideas; and Temple, though mainly a worker, has his place as a widener of the British mental horizon, if not as a reformer of religious thought. The salient feature of his record is his connection with 'Essays and Reviews' (1860), and what came thereof. That episode brought on him a deal of trouble, and most of his friends regarded it as the blot on his scutcheon.

The essay on "The Education of the World" seems obvious and harmless now, but it stood first in a book which excited general horror, and was itself, though not directly theological, tinctured with the odious spirit of free inquiry. Eminent divines and pious mothers, then and long after, were shocked by the idea that pagan Greeks and Romans, as well as Hebrews, had an allotted part in educating the world. Temple told his Sixth Form that he thought the publication of the book was right, since "it contains opinions that had long been lurking in corners: it was time they were dragged to light and faced. We, the essayists, knew who was going to write, but not what each was going to write about." He said he disagreed with some things in the book, and had done his part of it before he thought of coming to Rugby; "to have written in that book as headmaster of Rugby would have been a blunder." One of the boys wrote to his alarmed parent: "Tem-

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ple's all right; but if he turns Mahometan, all the school will turn too."

The tocsin rang with increased fury when he was named for Exeter. Dr. Pusey protested against "the horrible scandal of the recommendation of the editor of the 'Essays and Reviews' to be a Christian bishop." He was not the editor, and the book had plainly stated that each writer was responsible for his own work only; but at least he was in such bad company as Jowett, Pattison, and Baden Powell. He refused to make any public explanation or defence.

As a prelate he lived down obloquy and opposition, made friends of foes, and was regarded as a conservative and a strict disciplinarian. Any seeming opposition between the two parts of his career is easily explicable. He was no trimmer, but a very manly Englishman—"granite on fire." As schoolmaster he was a Gladstonian; as bishop he abstained from politics in Church or State. His views and principles never changed materially; first and last he held to the right of private judgment. But he was a practical man as well as a thinker and scholar, and saw that high office imposes duties and restraints, and this from a larger view than that of mere personal prudence. The impression he made was that of principle and character, and those nearest him honored and loved him deeply.

One lack he had, curious in so successful a career—that of affability, surface geniality. Not that he was "a delightful man with his friends, but shy with strangers"; but that strangers and friends alike were liable to find him curt, blunt, even sharp. He did not suffer fools gladly; like Mr. Bailey of Texas, he had not the gift of being pleasant under all circumstances. To a disgruntled parson who taxed him with rough and unsympathetic harshness he confessed with deep humility that he had prayed and striven in vain to cure the fault. In vain it was; but some of the samples of his manner are less painful at long range than they probably were to the first auditors. Thus, to one asking if he believed in Providential interference: "That depends on what you mean by it." "Well, my aunt was suddenly prevented from going a voyage in a ship that went down. Would you call that a case of Providential interference?" "Can't tell: didn't know your aunt." And to a vicar pointing to a dissenting chapel and saying, "That is where all the people go, my Lord": "WHY?" At worst, the scholboy's verdict may stand: "Temple is a beast but he is a just beast." His boys, after their first term, and the British public in later years, forgave the beast and respected the justness.

International Law as Interpreted during the Russo-Japanese War. By F. E. Smith and N. W. Sibley. The Boston Book Co. 1905.

This volume is designed to give an account of the international questions raised by the Japanese war in such a way as to enforce the conclusion that Russia showed throughout the war very little respect for the rights of neutrals. "The undiscriminating comprehensiveness of her list of contraband articles, her repudiation of the distinction between conditional and unconditional contraband, her claim to destroy neutral vessels upon provocation so extremely slight, and finally her bold contention as to the status of the volunteer cruisers," are given as instances to be contrasted with the behavior of Japan—so entirely civilized and legal (except in the cutting out of the *Rishitelni* from the neutral harbor of Chifu) from beginning to end of the conflict. This is perfectly true. Nothing was more remarkable from the first than the fact (conspicuous in all the diplomatic correspondence and public acts of the Japanese Government) that Japan had taken the Law of Nations of Grotius and Wheaton as a living guide, while Russia had failed wholly to grasp the fundamental modern notion that belligerent rights, as against neutrals, are substantially only such as arise *ex necessitate*, and not such as belligerents may be ready to claim. In saying this, it is, of course, to be admitted that there was a great disregard, on both sides, of the territorial rights of China and Korea, but this was in large measure because those States were not actually regarded or feared as equals. The International Law even of the most highly civilized nations has not yet become hospitable or "correct" enough to include within the "family of nations" members of that family who do not vigorously defend themselves against fraternal aggression.

We are inclined, however, to think that the great contribution of the war to International Law is not the mere fact that Russia made an extreme attempt to advance belligerent rights (in which she was pretty uniformly unsuccessful), or even that Japan gave to the world the wonderful spectacle of an Oriental nation at war, just emerged from the pre-scientific Asiatic night, exhibiting the very devotion to law and civilization in which its enemy (the armed champion of universal peace) was entirely deficient. The event of the war which seems to us most likely to be significant in future, and to tell most as a precedent, was the formation of the Court of Inquiry, under The Hague Convention, into the dispute which arose between England and Russia over the attack by the Russian fleet in the North Sea on the trawlers. This was not a court of arbitration, but a court to inquire into and settle facts. As the authors point out, it is at this point that International Law has been hitherto remarkably weak. When a dispute arises between nations, each side puts forward its own version of the facts; hitherto no machinery has existed for the ascertainment of facts by an impartial tribunal. The consequence is that when, in the heat and stress of a great war, a neutral complains of an outrage by a belligerent, each side puts forward and insists on its own version of the facts. Before The Hague Convention, an impartial international inquest was indeed possible, through a special arrangement with this end in view, but lamentably unlikely to be resorted to. The Hague Convention puts such an inquiry among the natural and simple means of settlement, and this first use of it is a novel and memorable historical precedent.

The book discusses all the questions which arose during the war and a great many more, but can hardly be regarded as a work of authority, as it is hastily and loosely written. The chapter on Espionage and Wireless Telegraphy, for instance, presents, to our mind, no clear case for consideration. Chapter VI., on the case of the *Hatsuse* (blown up by a mine ten miles from land), contains no new light on the subject of mines and balloons in war; the discussion is discursive and hypothetical. The book has a long chapter on international arbitration, which gives "some account of recent international arbitrations." A little more than a page is devoted to the *Alabama* arbitration; this is so condensed as to be valueless.

Mount Desert: A History. By George E. Street. Edited by Samuel A. Eliot, with a memorial introduction by Wilbert L. Anderson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905. Pp. xv., 361.

The three-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of Mount Desert was celebrated in September, 1904. Dr. Street intended to publish, in time for this celebration, an arrangement of numerous historical notes and papers that he had long been gathering, but his illness and death intervened. These, so edited as to be a continuous story, now constitute the present volume, issued as a memorial of Dr. Street. It is of specific value as a local history, but it includes much that is beyond the range of its title. In 1604, Champlain found and named the island, and in 1618 some Jesuits attempted to establish a colony at the entrance of what is known as Somes Sound. The colony was destroyed by English enemies of France almost as soon as it was begun. These incidents gave occasion to the historian to elaborate, through the first part of the volume, a description of the romantic and tragic adventures of French voyageurs on the American northeast coasts during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Most of this interesting and instructive detail is irrelevant here. Also, the discussion (pp. 46-50) of the career and character of Sir Samuel Argall, who destroyed the Saint Sauveur colony, would more fittingly find place elsewhere.

The history of Mount Desert, connecting past and present in a continuous sequence of events, begins properly with the happenings that make up the fourth chapter on "The Tory and Refugee Proprietors." After the dispersion of the Jesuit colonists there is a blank in the records for about a hundred and fifty years. But then, with the close of the conflict between France and England over the possession of northeastern America, large migrations eastward of adventurers from the older settlements of New England took place. From that time, the mountain-island of Maine was occupied by permanent settlers, and the development of the communities now there begun. The annals of "The Mount Desert Plantation" for the next hundred years tell of a sturdy, plain, frugal folk whose life was subjected to the most cramping and barren hardships in their struggle with an ungenerous environment. It is a memorable story, sympathetically, graphically told. The incident at Norwood's Cove in 1814, when some of the islanders defended their property successfully against the attacks of a British warship, possesses more than a merely local interest.

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Within the last forty years Mount Desert has attracted wide-spread interest, and, in some relations, has become a place of national importance. Dr. Street's history acquires a distinctive character among New England local histories from its chapter on "The Summer Colonies." Here is an important record of the beginnings and growth of the island's modern era, from the years when "its beautiful scenery and refreshing air" and simple, unconventional ways of living drew to it "a few artists and seaside loungers," to the present day, when "the whole social life and atmosphere have been transformed" by the presence of hundreds of families from afar, resident in luxurious homes, and hosts of tourists, who bring with them the conventional fashions and some of the follies of metropolitan centres.

The copious "Bibliographical Notes" exhibit the many guide-books and historical sketches, much verse, voluminous art works and scientific studies that have been published regarding Mount Desert. Thirty-three pictures, illustrating the history and scenery of the island, ornament the volume.

With Walt Whitman in Camden. By Horace Traubel. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 1906.

This is yet another of those merciless books by which the immediate circle of Whitman's personal friends have done what they could to check his widening fame. In this case the remorselessness is peculiarly thorough, since it finds itself justified by Whitman's own words, taken as a motto and given in large type: "Be sure to write about me honest: whatever you do, do not prettify me: include all the hells and damns." It does not appear in what temporary mood of illness or depression this candid counsel may have been given, but there is no doubt that the instruction is well fulfilled in this book. All the familiar group of intimate friends take a part in the effort, and they show themselves ready for constant reproduction even of the coarsest words.

With this appears, also, on Whitman's part, a constant attitude of superiority to the world's people. The New York literary men, or those whom the world knows as such, come in for habitual contempt. "They are mainly a sad crowd," Whitman says; "take the whole raft of them—Stoddard, Fawcett, the rest—what are they saying or doing that is in the least degree significant?" (p. 55). "Stedman is cute, but hardly more than cute" (p. 56). "The New York crowd of scrawlers" they are elsewhere called (p. 61). The Bostonians fare even less well. "There was a time," Whitman says, "when New England culture made me sick, mad, rebellious" (p. 392). "Whittier," he reports, "started to read the 'Leaves,' and when he came to what are called the indelicate passages threw the book into the fire" (p. 127). Of Hawthorne he says condescendingly that he "was a man of talent, even genius. . . . Still, I think he is monotonous, he wears me out; I do not read him with pleasure." Moreover, he speaks of "Hawthorne, in whom there is a morbid streak to which I can never accommodate myself. I call this thing in modern literature delirium tremens" (p. 111). The only man whom Whitman praises cordially and manfully is Emerson, of whom he always speaks with a certain reverence, even while strangely convincing himself that Emerson's objections to what Whitman calls "the outcast passages" in 'Leaves of Grass' were "neither moral nor literary, but were," as he says, "given with an eye to my worldly success" (p. 50). To those who recall the frankness with which Emerson at that very time used to express himself on what he called the "priapism" of the book, this remark will seem curiously incongruous.

The greater part of this thick volume is taken up with familiar gossip and letters, bearing less upon Whitman himself than on the intimate circle of rather second-rate men who clung close to him at all times and gave him good-night kisses (pp. 116, 147, 296, 304, 337). There are many portraits of these admirers; and yet, though the book itself is well arranged and beautifully printed, it leaves the reader in a somewhat dreary wonder whether it faithfully records even the declining and enfeebled years of the poet who once wrote "Captain, my Captain" and "Joy, shipmate, joy."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balfour, Arthur James. Fiscal Reform Speeches. *Longmans.* $1.25 net.
Converted Catholic, The. Edited by James A. O'Connor. Vol. XXII. James A. O'Connor.
Fowles, George Milton. Down in Porto Rico. Eaton & Mains. 75 cents net.
Harrison, Jane Ellen. Primitive Athens as described by Thucydides. Macmillan Co.
Ivins, William M. The Soul of the People: A New Year's Sermon. The Century Co.
Leage, R. W. Roman Private Law. Macmillan Co.
Mark Twain's Library of Humor. Women and Things. Harpers. $1.50.
Powell, Mary Elizabeth. The Dying Musician. Boston: Richard G. Badger.

New Books

Beebe's THE BIRD: Its Form and Function
BY C. WILLIAM BEEBE, Author of "Two Bird Lovers in Mexico." (Ready in May.)

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BY ELLA LYMAN CABOT. (Ready in June.)

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